DESCRIPTION OF BASSENTHWAITE LAKE.

With a perſpective View.

THE imagination of Touriſts having been generally exhauſted on the beauties of Keſwick, and the other principal lakes, we find leſs recorded of the preſent ſubject, which nevertheleſs has ſtrong pretenſions to the beſt diſtinctions of the pen and pencil. We ſhall, as uſual, firſt avail ourſelves of Mr. Hutchinſon's deſcription, whoſe accuracy entitles him to every preference.

He commences with the mention of Armathwaite, the late Mr. Spedding's houſe, a commodious manſion, fronting toward the ſouth, and being placed on a conſiderable eminence, gradually inclining to Baſſenthwaite Lake or Water, it commands an extenſive proſpect. The lake ſhows a long extended canal in front, not leſs than two miles in view, whoſe banks on the right hand ſide, ariſe ſwiftly from the water, lifted up in many conical figures clothed nobly with wood, which gives an indented ſhore, while the hills above ſwell into ſtupendous heights. Some covered with a fine verdure, and others ſhaken, rocky, and barren. The high promontories, which margin the lake, lie in a beautiful arrangement and line of perſpective on the weſtern ſide; while, on the other hand, the cultivated lands, gently deſcending from the foot of Skiddaw mountain, border the lake with meadows, interſected by growing fences, and ſcattered over with trees and cottages; ſupreme, the barren and ſtorm-beaten Skiddaw, blighted and torn by the north-weſt winds, frowns over the verdant valley, and lifts its naked brow above the clouds.

The ride by the ſide of the lake is beautiful, the views are various; ſome conſiſt of confined landſcapes, rich and highly paſtoral; others, which burſt ſuddenly upon the ſight, are wild, mountainous, and filled with auguſt objects: you ſee ſeveral where wood and water are finely blended, a cultivated iſthmus and a cottage; while all the back-ground of each landſcape is formed of the ſtupendous heights and hanging cliffs. The lake is ſaid to be near five miles in length, and one in breadth, abounding with pike, perch, and eels; and the reſort of a variety of wild fowl. It is the property of the earl of Egremont, who has the whole fiſhery of the lake, ſave three draughts, which belong to Mr. Spedding, viz. at Ouſebridge, Stone-wall, and Ellers-ſtile. The earl has the ſole right of navigation, and that of landing goods on any part of the ſhore. In the year 1772, the right to this lake was tried at the aſſizes in Carliſle, in a cauſe between the earl of Egremont and ſir Gilfrid Lawſon; when the earl had a verdict, that he was ſeized of the whole in fee-ſimple, with the fiſheries, except what we have mentioned, and that he had right to draw and land nets on the ſhores thereof, and grounds adjoining.

Parties of pleaſure at Keſwick, neglect this water, they ſeldom think it worth while to navigate it;—its beauties indeed are very different from thoſe of the lake above; but that is the very cauſe from whence they become more pleaſing. To enjoy the ſcenes properly, the viſitant ſhould navigate theſe lakes alternately.—This affords many bays, where you may in ſome parts puſh under the cover of a lofty overhanging grove, and in others rocky coves, where you find the gentler echo, favourable to muſic and a ſong. The painter has tamer landſcapes here, but they are warmer and more ſerene than thoſe of Keſwick.—Soft paſtoral ſcenes margin the lake on the eaſtern ſide, over which Skiddaw lifts an auguſt brow, to give the boldeſt contraſt to the green and gently riſing eminences, the ſcattered coppices, the velvet-dreſt lawn, the rich verdure of the mead,

Baſſenthwaite-water, Cumberland.

the tranquil cottage, and the ſerene and ſhining mirror, which the lake expands. The boldeſt landſcape round here, conſiſts of irregular eminences clothed with oaks, at whoſe feet a graſſy margin lies to the water's brink, and holds ſome farm-hold; while the ſublimer mountains, pile upon pile, lift up their heads, and, from the weſtern ſun, caſt long ſhades upon the lake, whoſe diſtant ſhores caſt the ſurpaſſing beams, and glow with additional beauty from the contraſting ſhades: over which the diſtant eminences mix their brows, with the azure of the atmoſphere.

Of this lake in Gray's Letters, we have the following notice: 'October 6 Went in a chaiſe along the eaſt ſide of Baſſenthwaite to Ouſebridge, (pronounced Ewſbridge) the road in ſome part made and very good; the reſt a ſlippery, dangerous cart road, or narrow rugged lanes, but no precipices; it runs directly along the foot of Skiddaw; oppoſite to *Widhope browes*, clothed to the top with wood, a very beautiful view opens down to the lake, which is narrower and larger than that of Keſwick, leſs broken into bays, and without iſlands.'

From Pennant we have the following memorandums. 'May 25. Continue my journey, paſs along the vale of Keſwick, and keep above Baſſenthwaite water, at a ſmall cultivated diſtance from it: this lake is a fine expanſe of four miles in length, bounded on one ſide by high hills, wooded in many places to their bottoms; on the other ſide by fields, and the ſkirts of Skiddaw. Marks of the plough appear on the tops of many of the hills. Tradition ſays, that in the reign of king John, the pope curſed all the lower grounds, and thus obliged the inhabitants to make the hills arable; but I rather believe that John himſelf drove them to this cruel neceſſity; for, out of reſentment of their declining to follow his ſtandards to the borders of Scotland, he cut down their hedges, levelled their ditches, and gave all the cultivated tracts of the north to the beaſts of chace, on his return from his expedition.

'From Mr. Spedding's of Armathwaite, at the lower extremity of the lake, have a fine view of the whole. Near this place, the Derwent quits the lake, paſſing under Ouſebridge, conſiſting of three arches. Salmons come up the river from the ſea about Michaelmas, and force their way through both lakes as far as Borrowdale. They had lately been on their return back, but the water near the bridge proving too ſhallow to permit them to proceed, they were taken by dozens, in very bad order, in the nets that were drawing for trout, at the end of the lake.'

In Mr. Houſeman's Tour, we have ſome variety of deſcription, which it would be improper to omit.

From Keſwick, ſays he, we proceeded to Ouſebridge, along a good carriage road, having Skiddaw on the right, with the lake on the left. In this pleaſing ride, we are led through rural winding lanes, paſſing ſeveral genteel houſes, finely ſituated; and, making an eaſy curve round the weſtern verge of Skiddaw, we have a delightful view of the vale and oppoſite hills on the left.

Mirehouſe, the ſeat of Thomas Strong, eſq. is a neat modern building, ſhaded with groves of young trees, and ſtanding in the vale at almoſt an equal diſtance between the baſe of Skiddaw and the lake. Here the ſucceſsful eſſay of Mr. Story, in rearing a thriving plantation of larch on the rocky front of the barren mountain, ought to encourage ſimilar attempts in many other parts of Cumberland and Weſtmoreland, to turn the almoſt uſeleſs hills to advantage, and beautify the country, by planting them with trees.—After half a mile farther, a road, turning to the left from the main road, leads down to Broadneſs, a round green hill that extends conſiderably into the lake, forming, with the aſſiſtance of two other promontories, a large ſemicircular bay on each ſide, with Bowneſs,

on the ſouth, and Scarneſs on the north. The beſt general view of the lake is from the crown of this hill, behind the farm-houſe. Here we have three finely formed bays immediately under the eye. The uniformity of the ſhore, conſiſting of ſteep wooded declivities, on one ſide of the lake, forms a ſtriking contraſt with the low and ſoft boundaries, ſcalloped into ſweeping headlands and promontories on the other. A long jutting point of land, planted with firs, ſtretches conſiderably into the lake, and contracts its dimenſions. From hence we paſs to Scarneſs, on the other ſide of the bay, and proceed to the extremity of the promontory. On the right we have a noble circular bay, a mile in diameter, with a beautiful variegated line of ſhore, conſiſting of low meadows, fringed with trees and bruſhwood, high wooded rocks, and neat buildings fronting the lake. On the left, another ſmall ſweeping bay, and before us the ſame front ſkreen of Withop-brows, in a ſomewhat different point of view.

We now recede a little from the lake, and proceed toward Ouſebridge, by way of Baſſenthwaite-halls. From a conſiderably elevated part of the road, on the north ſide of this village, there is a commanding view of the lake, with its accompaniments, and northern front of Skiddaw, which admits an aſcent almoſt as eaſy as that on the ſouth. The lengthening vales of Embleton and Iſel, are alſo conſpicuous objects from this ſtation.

We now reach Armathwaite, a ſmall, but finely ſituate ſeat, overlooking the lake through a grove of trees. Here the loweſt bay, laſhing its circular ſhores on every ſide, is ſeen in all its majeſty; every idea of a river is loſt, and the lake ſeems retiring behind the peninſula of Scarneſs in a delightful manner. The hanging woods of Withop appear on the other ſide of the lake, beautiful beyond deſcription.—A pleaſant road leads us to Ouſebridge, where there is a good inn fronting the lake, and commanding an extenſive view. Here the lake, without any previous contraction, or the leaſt appearance of an outlet, pours forth its waters (paſſing beneath a good ſtone bridge of three arches) under the continued name of Derwent, which river immediately takes a rapid courſe paſt Cockermouth, through fine vales to Workington.

For the ſake of variety, ſo neceſſary in excurſions of this nature, we ſhall point out the route to Keſwick, along the weſtern ſhores, by a road paſſable on horſeback. This ride, if poſſible, ſhould be taken in the evening, before the ſetting ſun, when the views of the oppoſite mountains are delightful. The road ſometimes mounts up the ſide of the mountain, and ſometimes drops down to the margin of the water, and is frequently immeſſed among woods ſo as to admit only occaſional glimpſes of the lake. At intervals we leave the woods for a little ſpace, and paſs through ſmall incloſures.

At Beck-withop, our views of the lake, and its circumjacent parts are very full and pleaſing. Behind us, Withop hangs his ſurly wooded brows in ſullen pride, and ſeems to frown upon us as invaders of his dominions. Before us the ſhore is margined with rocks, half concealed in bruſhwood; the oppoſite land is deeply indented with fine bays; while the bold promontories of Scarneſs, Broadneſs, and Bowneſs, puſh far into the lake. The vale of Baſſenthwaite, with its chapel in a retired ſituation, and whitened houſes interſperſed, is ſeen from a good point of view.—The mountain Ullock, a ſupplement to mighty Skiddaw, forms the back-ground of this picture, and Skiddaw himſelf, higher ſtill, ſoars to the ſkies, and ſhuts in the ſcene. Though this majeſtic mountain has a lofty appearance from whatever point it is ſeen, yet from this ſtation its height is moſt conſpicuous, forming a ſtriking contraſt with the intervening lake, and the lower hills around. The ſkirts of theſe mountains are clad in verdure,

and their breaſts purpled with heath, covered with a ſmooth cap of blue ſlate at the top, the fragments of which ſhiver down their ſteep ſides.—Armathwaite is a pleaſing object from hence, ſeen over a great expanſe of the lake. Further to the north, the ground riſes in eaſy ſlopes, and is much variegated with cultivated tracts, woodland, and round-topped hills. The views up the lake are various and pictureſque.

NATURAL HISTORY OF THE ROCK OF GIBRALTAR.

[THE hiſtory and importance of the fortreſs of Gibraltar, are circumſtances familiar to the public, but little is known of the natural hiſtory of the mountain on which the fortreſs is built, although to men of ſcience, that ſubject may be as intereſting as a detail of ſieges. This defect, however, is now ſupplied by means of major Imrie's mineralogical deſcription of Gibraltar, which is publiſhed in the fourth volume of the Tranſactions of the Royal Society of Edinburgh; and the following abſtract of it, we are perſuaded, will appear curious and entertaining.]

The form of this mountain is oblong; its ſummit a ſteep craggy ridge; its direction is nearly from north to ſouth; and its greateſt length, in that direction, falls very little ſhort of three miles. Its breadth varies with the indentations of the ſhore, but it no where exceeds three quarters of a mile. The line of its ridge is undulated, and the two extremes are ſomewhat higher than its centre.

The ſummit of the Sugar Loaf, which is the point of its greateſt elevation toward the ſouth, is 1439 feet; the Rock Mortar, which is the higheſt point to the north, is 1350; and the Signal Houſe, which is nearly the central point between theſe two, is 1276 feet above the level of the ſea. The weſtern ſide of the mountain is a ſeries of rugged ſlopes, interſperſed with abrupt precipices. Its northern extremity is perfectly perpendicular, except toward the north-weſt, where what are called the lines intervene, and a narrow paſſage of flat ground that leads to the iſthmus, and is entirely covered with fortification. The eaſtern ſide of the mountain moſtly conſiſts of a range of precipices; but a bank of ſand, riſing from the Mediterranean in a rapid acclivity, covers a third of its perpendicular height. Its ſouthern extremity falls, in a rapid ſlope from the ſummit of the Sugar Loaf, into a rocky flat of conſiderable extent, called Windmill Hill.

The principal maſs of the mountain rock conſiſts of a grey, denſe (what is generally called primary) marble; the different beds of which are to be examined in a face of 1350 feet of perpendicular height, which it preſents to Spain in a conical form. Theſe beds, or ſtrata, are of various thickneſs, from twenty to upward of forty feet, dipping in a direction from eaſt to weſt, nearly at an angle of 35 degrees. In ſome parts of the ſolid maſs of this rock are found teſtaceous bodies entirely tranſmuted into the conſtituent matter of the rock, and their interior hollows filled up with calcareous ſpar; but theſe do not occur often in its compoſition, and its beds are not ſeparated by any intermediate ſtrata.

The caves of Gibraltar, are many, and ſome of them of great extent. That which moſt deſerves examination is called St. Michael's Cave, which is ſituate upon the ſouthern part of the mountain, almoſt equally diſtant from the Signal Tower and the Sugar Loaf. Its entrance is 1000 feet above the level of the ſea. This entrance is formed by a rapid ſlope of earth, which has fallen into it at various periods, and which leads to a ſpacious hall, incruſted with ſpar, and apparently ſupported at the centre by a large maſſy ſtalactical pillar. To this ſucceeds a long ſeries of caves of difficult acceſs. In theſe cavernous

receſſes, the formation and proceſs of ſtalactites is to be traced, from the ſlimſy gilt-like cone, ſuſpended from the roof, to the robuſt trunk of a pillar, three feet in diameter, which riſes from the floor, and ſeems intended by nature to ſupport the roof, from which it originated.

The only inhabitant of theſe caves are bats, ſome of which are of a large ſize. The ſoil, in general, upon the mountain of Gibraltar, is but thinly ſown; and in many parts that thin covering has been waſhed off by the autumnal rains, which have left the ſuperficies of the rock, for a conſiderable extent, bare and open to inſpection. In thoſe ſituations, an obſervant eye may trace the effects of the ſlow, but conſtant decompoſition of the rock, cauſed by its expoſure to the air, and the corroſion of ſea ſalts, which, in the heavy gales of eaſterly winds, are depoſited with the ſpray on every part of the mountain. Thoſe uncovered parts of the mountain rock alſo expoſe to the eye a phenomenon worthy of ſome attention, as it tends clearly to demonſtrate, that, however high the ſurface of this rock may now be elevated above the level of the ſea, it has once been the bed of agitated waters. This phenomenon is to be obſerved in many parts of the rock, and is conſtantly found in the beds of torrents. It conſiſts of pot-like holes, of various ſizes, hollowed out of the ſolid rock, and formed apparently by the attrition of gravel or pebbles, ſet in motion by the rapidity of rivers or the currents in the ſea.

Upon the weſt ſide of the mountain, toward the baſe, ſome ſtrata occur, which are heterogenial to the mountain rock: the firſt, or higheſt, forms the ſegment of a circle; its convex ſide is toward the mountain, and it ſlopes alſo in that direction. This ſtratum conſiſts of a number of thin beds; the outward one being the thinneſt, is in a ſtate of decompoſition, and is mouldering down into a blackiſh brown or ferruginous coloured earth. The beds, inferior to this, progreſſively increaſe in breadth the ſeventeen inches, where the ſtratification reſts upon a rock of an argillaceous nature.

This laſt bed, which is ſeventeen inches thick, conſiſts of quartz of a blackiſh blue colour, in the ſepta or cracks of which are found fine quartz cryſtals, colourleſs, and perfectly tranſparent. Theſe cryſtals are compoſed of eighteen planes, diſpoſed in hexangular columns, terminated at both extremities by hexangular pyramids. The largeſt of theſe that major Imrie ſaw, did not exceed one fourth of an inch in length: they, in general, adhere to the rock by the ſides of the column, but are detached without difficulty. Their great degree of tranſparency has obtained them the name of Gibraltar Diamonds.

Much has been ſaid of the foſſil bones found in the rock of Gibraltar; and the general idea which exiſts concerning them is, that they are found in a petrified ſtate, and incloſed in the ſolid calcareous rock; but this, ſays major Imrie, is a miſtake, which could ariſe only from inaccurate obſervation and falſe deſcription.

In the perpendicular fiſſures of the rock, and in ſome of the caverns of the mountain, (all of which afford evident proofs of their former communication with the ſurface) a calcareous concretion is found, of a reddiſh brown ferruginous colour, with an earthy fracture, and conſiderable induration, incloſing the bones of various ſizes, and lie in all directions, intermixed with ſhells of ſnails, fragments of the calcareous rock, and particles of ſpar; all of which materials are ſtill to be ſeen in their natural uncombined ſtates, partially ſcattered over the ſurface of the mountain. Theſe having been ſwept, by heavy rains at different periods, from the ſurface into the ſituations above deſcribed, and having remained for a long ſeries of years in thoſe places of reſt, expoſed to the permeating action of water, have become inveloped in, and cemented by, the calcareous matter which it depoſits.

The bones, in this compoſition, have not the ſmalleſt appearance of being petrified; and if they have undergone any change, it is more like that of calcination than that of petrifaction, as the moſt ſolid parts of them generally admit of being cut and ſcraped down with the ſame eaſe as chalk.

Bones combined in ſuch concretions are not peculiar to Gibraltar: they are found in ſuch large quantities in the country of Dalmatia, and upon its coaſts in the iſlands of Cherſo and Oſero, that ſome naturaliſts have been induced to go ſo far as to aſſert, that there has been a regular ſtratum of ſuch matter in that country, and that its preſent broken and interrupted appearance has been cauſed by earthquakes, or other convulſions, experienced in that part of the globe. But of late years, a traveller (abbe Alberto Fortis) has given a minute deſcription of the concretion in which the bones are found in that country: and by his account it appears, that with regard to ſituation, compoſition, and colour, it is perfectly ſimilar to that found at Gibraltar. By his deſcription, it alſo appears that the two mountain rocks of Gibraltar and Dalmatia, conſiſt of the ſame ſpecies of calcareous ſtone; from which it is to be preſumed, that the concretions in both have been formed in the ſame manner and about the ſame periods.

Perhaps, if the fiſſures and caves of the rock of Dalmatia were ſtill more minutely examined, their former communications with the ſurface might yet be traced, as in thoſe deſcribed above; and, in that caſe, there would be at leaſt a ſtrong probability, that the materials of the concretions of that country, have been brought together by the ſame accidental cauſe, which has probably collected thoſe found in the caverns of Gibraltar. Major Imrie traced, in Gibraltar, this concretion, from the loweſt part of a deep perpendicular fiſſure, up to the ſurface of the mountain. As it approached to the ſurface, the concretion became leſs firmly combined, and, when it had no covering of the calcareous rock, a ſmall degree of adheſion only remained, which was evidently produced by the argillaceous earth, in its compoſition, having been moiſtened by rain and baked by the ſun.

The depth at which theſe materials had been penetrated by that proportion of ſtalactical matter, capable of giving to the concretion its greateſt adheſion and ſolidity, he found to vary according to its ſituation, and to the quantity of matter to be combined. In fiſſures, narrow and contracted, he found the concretion poſſeſſing a great degree of hardneſs at ſix feet from the ſurface; but in other ſituations more extended, and where a larger quantity of the materials had been accumulated, he found it had not gained its greateſt degree of adheſion at double that depth. In one of the caves, where the maſs of concretion is of conſiderable ſize, he perceived it to be divided into different beds, each bed being covered with a cruſt of the ſtalactical ſpar, from one inch to an inch and a half in thickneſs, which ſeems to indicate, that the materials have been carried in at various periods, and that thoſe periods have been very remote from each other.

At Roſia Bay, upon the weſt ſide of Gibraltar, this concretion is found in what has evidently been a cavern, originally formed by huge unſhapely maſſes of the rock, which have tumbled in together. The fiſſures, or cavern, formed by the diſruption and ſubſidence of theſe maſſes, has been entirely filled up with the concretion, and is now expoſed to full view by the outward maſs having dropped down in conſequence of the encroachments of the ſea. It is to this ſpot that ſtrangers are generally led to examine the phenomenon; and the compoſition, having here attained to its greateſt degree of hardneſs and ſolidity, the haſty obſerver ſeeing the bones incloſed in what has ſo little the appearance of having been a vacuity, examines no further, but immediately adopts the

idea of their being incaſed in the ſolid rock. The communication from this former chaſm, to the ſurface from which it has received the materials of the concretion, is ſtill to be traced in the face of the rock, but its opening is at preſent covered by the baſe of the line wall of the garriſon. Here bones are found that are apparently human; and thoſe of them that appear to be of the legs, arms, and vertebræ of the back, are ſcattered among others of various ſizes and kinds, even down to the ſmalleſt bones of ſmall birds. Major Imrie found here the complete jawbone of a ſheep; it contained its full complement of teeth, the enamel of which was perfect, and its whiteneſs and luſtre in no degree impaired. In the hollow parts of ſome of the large bones, was contained a minute cryſtallization of pure and colourleſs calcareous ſpar; but, in moſt, the interior part conſiſted of a ſparry cruſt of a reddiſh colour, ſcarcely in any degree tranſparent.

At the northern extremity of the mountain, the concretion is generally found in perpendicular fiſſures. The miners there, employed upon the fortifications in excavating one of thoſe fiſſures, found, at a great depth from the ſurface, two ſkulls, which were ſuppoſed to be human; but, to the major, one of them, if not both, appeared to be too ſmall for the human ſpecies. The bone of each was perfectly firm and ſolid; from which it is to be preſumed, that they were in a ſtate of maturity before they were incloſed in the concretion. Had they appertained to very young children, perhaps the bone would have been more porous, and of a leſs firm texture. The probability is, that they belonged to a ſpecies of monkey, which ſtill continues to inhabit, in conſiderable numbers, thoſe parts of the rock which are to us inacceſſible.

This concretion varies, in its compoſition, according to the ſituation in which it is found. At the extremity of Prince Lines, high in the rock which looks toward Spain, it is found to conſiſt only of a reddiſh calcareous earth, and the bones of ſmall birds cemented thereby. The rock around this ſpot is inhabited by a number of hawks, that, in the breeding ſeaſon, neſtle here and rear their young; the bones in this concretion are probably the remains of the food of thoſe birds. At the baſe of the rock, below King's Lines, the concretion conſiſts of pebbles of the prevailing calcareous rock. In this concretion, at a very conſiderable depth under the ſurface, was found the under parts of a glaſs bottle, uncommonly ſhaped, and of great thickneſs; the colour of the glaſs was a dark green.

Major Imrie makes an apology for giving ſo minute a deſcription of theſe foſſil bones; but, in our opinion, ſays Dr. Gleig, the public is indebted to him for beſtowing ſo much attention on a ſubject, which all muſt admit to be curious, and which, from the ſtrange inferences drawn from ſimilar phenomena by modern philoſophers, has become important as well as curious.

We cannot diſmiſs this article, without noticing the ſubterraneous galleries conſtructed in the rock, not only for the protection of the men during a ſiege, but alſo placing cannon, to annoy the enemy, in ſituations inacceſſible but by ſuch means. The idea of forming theſe galleries, was conceived by the late lord Heathfield, when governor, and by him in ſome meaſure, carried into execution; though the plan was not completed till lately by general O'Hara. Of theſe galleries we have the following animated account

The ſubterraneous galleries are very extenſive, pierce the rock in ſeveral places and in various directions, and at various degrees of elevation; all of them have a communication with each other, either by flights of ſteps cut in the rock, or by wooden ſtairs, where the paſſages are required to be very perpendicular.

The centinels may now be relieved during the ſiege, from one poſt to ano-

ther in perfect ſafety; whereas, previouſly to the conſtructing of theſe galleries, a vaſt number of men were killed by the Spaniards while marching to ſeveral ſtations. The width of theſe galleries is about twelve feet, their height about fourteen. The rock is broken through in various places, both for the purpoſe of giving light and for placing the guns to bear on the enemy. In different parts there are ſpacious receſſes, capable of accommodating a conſiderable number of men. To theſe receſſes they give names, ſuch as St. Patrick's Chamber, St. George's Hall, &c. The whole of theſe ſingular ſtructures have been formed out of the ſolid rock, by blaſting with gunpowder. Through the politeneſs of an officer on duty, a place called Smart's Reſervoir was opened for our inſpection, which is a great curioſity, and not generally permitted to be ſhown. It is a ſpring at a conſiderable depth in the body of the rock, and is above 700 feet above the level of the ſea; we deſcended into the cavern, that contains it by a rope ladder, and with the aid of lighted candles, proceeded through a narrow paſſage over cryſtallized protuberances of the rock till we came to a hollow, which appears to have been opened by ſome convulſion of nature. Here, from a bed of gems, ariſes the ſalutary fount, clear as the brilliant of the eaſt, and cold as the icicle. We hailed the nymph of the grot, and, proſtrating ourſelves, quaffed hygeian nectar from her ſparry urn. When reſtored to the light of day, we obtained, through the medium of the ſame gentleman, the key of St. George's Hall, at which we arrived by a very intricate and gloomy path to the ſpacious excavation, which is upward of a hundred feet in length, its height nearly the ſame. It is formed in a ſemicircular part of the rock; ſpacious apertures are broken through, where cannons of a very large calibre command the iſthmus, the Spaniſh lines, and a great part of the bay. The top of the rock is pierced through, ſo as to introduce ſufficient light to enable you to view every part of it. It appears almoſt incredible that ſo large an excavation could be formed by gunpowder, without blowing up the whole of that part of the rock, and ſtill more ſo, that they ſhould be able to direct the operations of ſuch an inſtrument, ſo as to render it ſubſervient to the purpoſe of elegance. We found in the hall a table, placed, I ſuppoſe, for the conveniency of thoſe who are traverſing the rock. The cloth was ſpread, the wine went round, and we made the vaulted roof reſound with the accents of mirth, and the ſongs of conviviality.

Theſe excavations are indeed very extraordinary works; but as the whole rock abounds with caverns, we wiſh that our author had enquired more particularly than he ſeems to have done, whether St. George's Hall be wholly the work of art. From one of the paſſages, which we have extracted from major Imrie's Memoir, we are led to think that it is not, or, at leaſt, that the concretion removed had not acquired the conſiſtence of the more ſolid parts of the rock. If this was the caſe, much of the wonder will vaniſh, ſince the pick-axe and chiſel were probably employed to give elegance to the vault, and even, in ſome degree, to direct the operation of the gunpowder.

OBSERVATIONS *on the* MEANS *of detecting the* PRESENCE *of* LEAD *in* WINE. *By* C. O. REINECKE.

TO gratify ſordid avarice at the expence of the health of mankind, by communicating to ſour wines a fallacious ſweetneſs by means of the oxide of lead, is a crime which for the dignity of the human race we ſhall ſuppoſe to be committed rather through ignorance than want of principle. Half a

bottle of Chably wine was lately ſent me to teſt, with a notice, that a perſon, whoſe opinion, on account of his talents, was entitled to great reſpect, had tried this wine, and believed that he had found in it oxide of lead. To accompliſh the object in view I employed the following means:

Firſt, After being aſſured that the ſeal with which the correſpondent had marked the half bottle was in good preſervation, I began to examine the phyſical properties of the wine it contained. It was perfectly clear, had ſcarcely any colour, and had formed no depoſit. The taſte of this liquor alone convinced me that it had not experienced that adulteration of which it was ſuſpected; it had that pure and pungent taſte, which is ſo much liked in Chably wine, without the ſlighteſt trace of that perfidious ſweetneſs communicated by acetite of lead, and which always betrays itſelf by a ſtyptic reliſh, however ſmall may have been the quantity of this poiſon mixed with the liquor.

Second, As it was neceſſary that the detection ſhould be of ſuch a nature as to be evident to thoſe acquainted with the firſt principles of chymiſtry, I endeavoured to find it in the relation which alkaline pruſſiates have with metallic ſolutions. It is well known that they decompoſe them all in conſequence of that double affinity by which the pruſſic acid abandons its firſt baſe to form with the metallic oxide an inſoluble pruſſiate, coloured according to the nature of the metal. Setting out from this principle, I diſſolved cryſtallized pruſſiate of potaſh in diſtilled water, and mixed this ſolution with a part of the ſuſpected wine. Having left this mixture expoſed to the air for twenty-four hours, and then finding no other changes but a few atoms of pruſſiate of iron, very diſtinguiſhable by its blue colour, I conſidered myſelf as authorized to announce that the wine in queſtion did not contain the leaſt particle of lead.

Third, To give to this firſt proof that degree of evidence of which it is ſuſceptible, and to place the principles of it beyond all doubt, I mixed another part of the ſuſpected wine with a ſingle drop of the acetite of lead; to this mixture two drops of the ſame ſolution of pruſſiate of potaſh (2d) were added, and I immediately obtained a precipitate of a dirty white colour, being the pruſſiate of lead, and proving in the fulleſt manner, that in the preceding experiment the ſame wine muſt have given the ſame precipitate if it had contained the ſmalleſt particle of lead.

Fourth, To theſe proofs and counter-proofs by the pruſſiate, (2 and 3) that of the muriatic acid was added: the latter, as is well known, ſeparates lead from its ſolutions under the form of a muriate very little ſoluble; it did not diſturb the tranſparency of the ſuſpected wine, nor produce any change in it: this, then, ſtill tends to prove that the above ſuſpicion was ill founded.

Fifth, The proof by ſulphuret of potaſh, propoſed long ago as the ſure means of detecting lead in wine, had been employed by the perſon above mentioned. A number of cauſes, well known, render this proof doubtful; and it is well known that it is concluſive only when the preſence of the metal alluded to has been proved by complete deoxygenation, bringing back the oxide to the ſtate of metal. For want of this verification, this proof has very often been the ſource of errors, the more ſerious as the ſuſpicion to which they give riſe is odious. It was more than probable that the ſame cauſe had in the preſent caſe produced the ſame effect; but it was of importance to prove it, which was done as follows:

The reagent in queſtion was made in the proportions and manner indicated by the perſon who had employed this teſt *: equal parts of ſulphur and potaſh (cauſtic) were diſſolved in

* This indication, under the title of a note on the experiment, was tranſmitted to me with the wine.—O. R.

a ſufficient quantity of diſtilled water; ſome drops of this ſolution, which the ſaid perſon called *ſulphuret*, and to which he ought to have given the name of *hydrogenated ſulphuret*, were mixed with the ſuſpected wine, and no other change was produced, but that which ought to take place in pure wine of the ſame kind, viz a decompoſition of the ſulphuret, either by the malic acid or by the tartareous acid of the acidulous tartrite of potaſh. Had this wine held in ſolution a particle of lead, the latter muſt neceſſarily have immediately formed, not a ſalt, as the author of the note ſays, but a metallic ſulphuret, inſoluble, and eaſy to be diſtinguiſhed by its colour; being at firſt of a reddiſh brown, and paſſing ſoon to dark brown. But as the wine did not experience from this reagent any other change than that ariſing from the ſaid decompoſition, giving firſt a white cloud, then ſome traces, ſcarcely ſenſible, of a depoſit of the ſame colour, which is nothing elſe than the ſulphur precipitated, it is ſtill proved the wine did not contain a particle of lead.

Sixth, Another part of the ſame kind of wine, but known to contain lead, was employed to confirm the proof (5) by a counter-teſt: a drop of the ſolution of acetite of lead was put into it, and hydrogenated ſulphuret being then added, I immediately obtained the inſoluble ſulphuret of lead of the colour which I have mentioned.

Seventh, Having at hand all the apparatus neceſſary for theſe reſearches, I applied them to red wine ſold in a tavern. One part of this wine being mixed with a few drops of the ſolution of acetite of lead, and then with hydrogenated ſulphuret, the ſulphuret of lead was immediately announced by a change of colour. The purple paſſed to blackiſh, and ſoon after the metal was detected by an abundant depoſit of the ſame colour. One part of the ſame red wine being mixed with hydrogenated ſulphuret, without adding acetite of lead, the difference of the phenomena was ſo ſtriking, that it alone is ſufficient to give confidence to perſons whoſe regard for their health may induce them to make trials of this nature: the change of colour is no leſs ſpeedy in pure wine than in that which contains lead, but this change is altogether oppoſite to that which I have here noted. Red wine containing lead grows darker by hydrogenated ſulphuret; pure red wine, on the other hand, when the reagent is mixed with it, exchanges its purple colour for a bright roſe red, and of ſo beautiful a ſhade, that on ſeeing the liquid become turbid, the hope of obtaining a precipitate ſuſceptible of becoming uſeful to the arts does not enter into the domain of illuſions, till the filter and the want of a ſenſible depoſit obliges the artiſt to acknowledge his error.

PORTRAIT OF MONTESQUIEU.

Drawn by HIMSELF.

[From his Poſthumous Works.]

I HAVE rarely experienced either chagrin, or liſtleſsneſs. The temper of my mind is ſo happily framed, that all objects ſtrike me with ſufficient force to excite pleaſure, but not with ſufficient force to excite pain. I poſſeſs ambition enough to intereſt myſelf in the affairs of this life, but none to be diſguſted with the ſituation wherein nature has placed me. In my youth, I was very fortunate in my attachments to women, who, I believed, loved me; when I no longer believed ſo, I diſengaged myſelf immediately from them. Study has been the ſovereign remedy againſt all the diſquietudes of my life, having never experienced any anxiety, which an

hours reading did not diſpel. I awake in the morning, with the ſecret joy at the ſight of day, I view the light with extaſy, and during the remainder of the day I am happy. I paſs the night without waking, and when retired to reſt, a ſort of langour keeps me from reflection. I am almoſt as well pleaſed with foo's as with men of ſenſe, for there are few men ſo tireſome as not to amuſe me, and very often there is nothing ſo entertaining as a ſilly fellow. I do not diſlike to divert myſelf internally with other men, reſerving to them the right in their turn of taking me for what they pleaſe. I have always had a puerile fear of the generality of great men; but when I have known them, there have been ſcarcely any bounds to my contempt of them. I have loved ſufficiently to ſay pleaſantries to the women, and to do them favours which coſt ſo little. I had naturally a love for the good and honour of my country, but little for what is called glory; and have always felt a ſecret delight when any regulation had been enacted, which had a tendency to promote the public welfare. When I travelled into foreign parts, I felt the ſame attachment to them as to my own country. I took a lively intereſt in their welfare, and wiſhed they had been in a more proſperous ſtate. I have thought that I diſcovered talents in men, who are reported to poſſeſs none. I loved my family well enough, to do whatever was beneficial to it in matters of conſequence; but I have not thought it worth my while to attend to trivial details. When angry, which rarely happens, I ſhow it without reſerve. I have always entertained a bad opinion of myſelf, from the circumſtance, that there are very few ſituations in the ſtate, for which I am fitted; and in reſpect to my duties as a preſident, though I have a very upright heart, and ſufficiently comprehend the queſtions themſelves, yet I underſtand nothing at all of the proceſs of a law ſuit, notwithſtanding my application to the ſubject. But what moſt diſguſted me, was, the conſideration that a ſet of ignorant wretches poſſeſſed this talent, which I could not acquire. My conſtitution is ſuch, that upon all ſubjects, a little abſtruſe, I am obliged to collect myſelf, without which, my ideas become confuſed; and if I perceive that I am attended to, the whole ſubject ſeems to vaniſh before me; ſeveral traces of it ruſh at once upon my mind, whence it follows that I am unable to revive any diſtinct idea. In rational converſations, where the ſubjects are ſhort and conciſe, I ſucceed tolerably well. I have never ſeen a tear fall without being ſenſibly affected. I am paſſionately fond of friendſhip. I readily forgive, becauſe I am not vindictive. When any one wiſhes to be reconciled to me, I have felt my vanity flattered, and have no longer conſidered as an enemy, the man who has done me the favour of giving me a good opinion of myſelf. On my eſtate, among my vaſſals, I have never ſuffered my temper to be ruffled by tale bearers. When they have complained to me, 'If you know what has been ſaid;' I always anſwered, 'I will not know it!' If their intended report were falſe, I would not run the riſk of believing it; if true, I would not take the trouble of hating. I was in love at thirty-five years of age. It is as impoſſible for me to pay a viſit with an intereſted motive, as for me to ſtand on the air. When I mingled with the world, I enjoyed it as if I could never endure retirement; when on my eſtate, I thought no more of the world. I believe I am the only man who have publiſhed books, without being anxious of obtaining the reputation of a wit. I never wiſhed to appear ſo in company, though I am talkative enough among thoſe with whom I live. It has been my misfortune to be too often diſguſted with thoſe, from whom I expected good will. I have preſerved all my friends, with the exception of one. I live with my children, on the footing of friends. Baſh-

fulneſs has been the bane of my life; it ſeems to extinguiſh my ſenſes, to tie up my tongue, to throw a cloud over my ideas, and to derange my expreſſions. I was leſs ſubject to thoſe mortifications before ſenſible men than before fools, becauſe the hope of being liſtened to by the former, encouraged me. On ſome occaſions, however, my mind has made an extraordinary effort. Being at Luxembourg, in the hall where the emperor dined, prince Kuſki ſaid to me, 'You, ſir, who come from France, are greatly aſtoniſhed to ſee the emperor ſo poorly lodged.' 'Sir,' I replied, 'I am not ſorry to be in a country, where the ſubjects are better accommodated than their maſter.' I dined, when I was in England, at the duke of Richmond's. La Boine, who was a ſtupid fellow, though our envoy to England, inſiſted that England was nearly as large as the province of Guienne I ſoon ſilenced my gentleman. In the evening, the queen ſaid to me, 'I know you have taken our part againſt your countryman, M. de la Boine.' 'Madam,' ſaid I, 'I cannot imagine that the country, over which you reign, is not a great one.' I am a good ſubject, and ſhould have been the ſame, in whatever country I had been born, becauſe I have been always ſatisfied with my condition and fortune, have never been aſhamed of them, nor envied thoſe of other men; becauſe I love without fearing the government under which I was bred, and wiſh for no other favour than the ineſtimable advantage of ſharing in its bleſſings, in common with the reſt of my countrymen; and I thank heaven, that having given me mediocrity in all things, it has been pleaſed to endue my mind with a ſpirit of moderation. If I may be permitted to predict the fate of my work, (The Spirit of Laws) it will be more approved of than read; ſuch ſtudies afford pleaſure, but never amuſement. I intended to have enlarged ſeveral portions of it, and to have rendered it more profound; but I am no longer able to accompliſh my wiſh. Reading has impaired my ſight, and it ſeems to me, that the little light which remain with me, is only the eve of that day, whereon my eyes will cloſe for ever. If I had ever known of any thing that would have been uſeful to myſelf, but injurious to my family, I ſhould have rejected it with all my ſoul; if I had known of any thing advantageous to my family, but diſadvantageous to my country, I ſhould have ſtriven to forget it; if I had known of any thing ſerviceable to my country, but injurious to Europe and mankind, I ſhould have conſidered it as a crime. I wiſh to have unaffected manners, to receive as few favours as poſſible, and to do as many as are in my power. If the immortality of the ſoul *be* a deluſion, I ſhould be ſorry not to believe in it; for I confeſs I am not ſo humble as the atheiſt. I know not how *they* think, but for myſelf, I will not compromiſe the idea of my immortality againſt that of the enjoyments of a day. I am delighted in believing that I am immortal as God himſelf; and independently of revelation, metaphyſical ideas afford me a very ſtrong hope of everlaſting happineſs, a hope which I will never renounce.

ON A CHEAP SUBSTITUTE FOR OIL PAINT.

C. CADET DE VAUX has lately publiſhed a memoir, on what he calls painting in diſtemper with milk. His proceſs, which is nearly ſimilar to that of Ludic, is as follows:

Take ſkimmed milk two quarts, lime newly ſlaked ſix ounces, oil of pinks, linſeed oil, or nut oil, four ounces, Spaniſh white (or well-ground chalk) three pounds. Put the lime into an earthern veſſel, and pour over it a portion of the milk, ſufficient to bring it to the conſiſtence of thick ſoup: add gradually the oil, ſtirring

the mixture with a ſmall wooden ſpatula; then pour in the remainder of the milk, and dilute in it the Spaniſh white. Skimmed milk, in ſummer, is often found curdled, but this is a matter of little importance to our preſent object; by coming into contact with the lime it will ſoon be reſtored to fluidity. It muſt, however, not be ſour, as it would then form with the lime a ſort of acetite (or, more correctly, a lactite) of lime, ſuſceptible of attracting humidity.

The lime is ſlaked by immerſing it in water, then taking it out and leaving it to effloreſce in the air. The choice of the oils is a matter of indifference; but, for painting white, oil of pinks ought to be preferred, becauſe it is colourleſs; even the moſt common oils may be employed for painting with ochre. The oil, by falling into the mixture of milk and lime, diſappears: it is completely taken up by the lime, with which it forms a calcareous ſoap.

The Spaniſh white muſt be pounded, and ſtrewed gently on the ſurface of the liquid, by which it is gradually imbibed, and at length falls to the bottom. This paint may be coloured like that for diſtemper, by charcoal pounded in water, yellow ochre, &c. It is employed in the ſame manner as paint for diſtemper. This quantity will be ſufficient for giving a firſt ſtratum to ſix fathoms. The expence for the above quantity is about fourpence halfpenny, which makes about three halfpence per fathom.

When it is neceſſary that the painting ſhould be more durable, the following mixture may be employed: ſlaked lime two ounces, oil two ounces, and Burgundy pitch the ſame quantity. The pitch muſt be diſſolved in the oil, in a gentle heat, and the clear liquor of the milk and lime muſt be added. During cold weather, the milk and lime ought to be heated, that the pitch may not be too ſuddenly cooled, and to facilitate its union with the milk and lime. Painting with this ſubſtance has ſome analogy to that known by the name of encauſtic.

Theſe kinds of painting will ſtand againſt the common effects of the weather for years, and anſwer well for garden railings, fencings, and the like. The firſt time that wood is thus painted, it ſhould receive a ſecond coat after the firſt one is dry; but when repainted, a ſingle coat only will be neceſſary.

MANNERS OF PARIS.

The following Sketches of the Manners of this gay Metropolis, which have undergone a Revolution as complete as that of the Government, are extracted from two Works, lately publiſhed in France, *but not yet tranſlated. They will afford our Readers curious Matter for Reflection—and perhaps, in ſome Reſpects, they may be led to form Compariſons.*

ABOUT two hundred years ago, (ſays M. Pugoulx, one of theſe authors) the Pariſians dined at mid-day; at preſent the artiſan dines at two, the conſiderable merchant at three, the clerk at four, the *new man*, who has become rich, the ſpeculator, the banker, at five; the miniſter, the legiſlator, the rich batchelor, at ſix; and theſe laſt uſually riſe from table at the hour, when our anceſtors went to ſupper. Three-fourths of Paris no longer ſup, and the half of theſe three-fourths are forced to this practice by economy. Thoſe who do ſup ſit down to table at eleven o'clock, and go to bed in ſummer at the hour the workman riſes.

Speaking of breakfaſts, he ſays, a new mode, a new taſte has lately been introduced: our rich men wiſh for ſomething *ſolid*, their wives are of the ſame opinion, and our beſt coffeehouſes have become eating-houſes. By the

ſide of the ſign which announces chocolate, tea *a l'Angloiſe*, coffee *a la créme*,' lemonade, orgeat, &c. you read every where *breakfaſt cold and hot*, that is to ſay ſauſages, kidneys, wings, &c.

Enter that parlour, ſee with what neatneſs, and how alertly you are ſerved. It is mid day, that is the hour of breakfaſt.—Let us ſit down a moment. A benevolent obſerver of every ridiculous abſurdity, of fancies of every kind, I ſometimes yield to them, for the ſake of a more cloſe examination. I am at home here, I know the frequenters of this place. I can name to you our modern Crœſuſes and Aſpaſias: this ſort of people court notoriety, their characteriſtic is ſo marked, that ſee them only once and you cannot forget their features, their manner, and above all, their language, that alone muſt betray them.

That fat man, with a ſhort neck, is an excellent ſpeculator; that gay carriage at the door is his. What an appetite! four diſhes already emptied! Believe me his appetite for buſineſs is equal to his eating powers, and this enſures him ſucceſs: he is rich, very rich, and has been only twice a bankrupt.

The young man, who is at the other table, and who views with ſuch attention the furniture, who meaſures the mirrors with his eye, and who weighs his fork and ſpoon, who then paſſes to the contemplation of the jewels of thoſe at breakfaſt, and who has juſt had a peep at your watch when you pulled it from your fob, well, that young man—is, no doubt, a thief—Not at all he is accuſtoming himſelf to valuation.—I underſtand you; that he may hereafter ſteal to more advantage.—No he is a pawnbroker, the proprietor of a noted ſhop, where he lends at fifty *per cent.* beſide extra charges.

And that woman, who is coming in with two young men, is ſhe going to breakfaſt at an eating houſe?—Why not?—Arms naked, back naked, &c. What a confidence in her manner! How impudent a look! She is certainly a ——. She is the ci-devant marchioneſs of ——, and is now only at her *third* divorce. She is with two gamblers—Rich, I ſuppoſe—What is your meaning? a week ago they had not a *ſou*; yeſterday they wallowed in gold, and to-morrow perhaps they may be ſtarving.—But their income, their property—Is at their fingers' ends.

We have breakfaſted, let us go through the room where they drink coffee—there are few people—the hour for this kind of breakfaſt is paſt. Do you ſee that man, who dips the remains of a roll in a glaſs of currant-water?—Yes, I conjecture, from his old brown coat, that his fortune was not land.—You are right—look back to the parlour we have juſt quitted, look at that roſy-faced bon-vivant, who having finiſhed the contents of the diſhes heaped up before him, is diſpatching h ſeventh kidney; that devourer of kidneys was, ten years ago, the humble lackey of the currant-water man.—

In the ſecond year of the republic, I was travelling in a diligence, in which were two men, whoſe appearance even at that time was extraordinary. They were ſent by a town in one of the departments, which border on the Puy-de-Dome, and were going to Paris, to ſolicit a fund for the erection of a granary, wherein to depoſit the corn, which they collected by the mode of requiſition. Surpriſed at their miſſion, I aſked them if they had no public building in their commune. 'None,' they replied, 'we had a large and beautiful church, but we have demoliſhed it.' Why ſo? returned I innocently, and almoſt imprudently. 'We have already told you,' ſaid they both together, with an expreſſion of countenance it is impoſſible to paint, 'becauſe it was *a church!*'

Reſpect for the dead has been ever connected with the doctrines and ceremonials of all religions—that reſpect has diſappeared among us, with the

annihilation of religion, and we have no inſtitution to encourage its revival. It appears that we wiſh to make inſenſibility a duty, which ſome ſavage tribes conſider as a virtue. Were a Chineſe to meet a ſolitary coffin in the ſtreets of Paris, borne by hirelings, who utter coarſe jeſts as they carry it along, he would exclaim, 'this people are either inſenſible or barbarians.'

From the other author, whoſe name does not appear, we have the following ſketch of Paris.

While I waited for my letters, I viſited every part of the ancient capital of France. I was every-where accompanied by my friends, whoſe aſſiſtance was, indeed neceſſary, for Paris was no longer the ſame, and I ſcarcely knew it again. I ſhould have been leſs a ſtranger at Rome under the reign of the firſt emperor, than in the city in which I was born, and from which I had not been abſent more than five years. The houſes, indeed, with ſome few alterations, were the ſame, and the ſtreets were the ſame; but the inhabitants were very different.

Moſt perſons of opulence had become poor, but all the poor had not become rich, for never was wretchedneſs ſo general: but certain characters had enriched themſelves at the public expence, and in their eyes it was a crime to maintain, that every body was not happy. At every ſhop I met with ſtrange cuſtoms, and figures ſtill more ſtrange.

With the legiſlators, the Roman tunic had been replaced by the red cap; but neither the red cap nor the Roman tunic had ſobered the heads of the Pariſians. Sometimes, on ſeeing deputies, directors, and ſtate meſſengers, paſs in their dreſs of ceremony, I fancy myſelf at a performance in the ſuburbs of St. Anthony, during the ancient Saturnalia in the Capitol; for the modern ſenators had adopted the dreſs of the ancient Romans; and I was told that they were ſo diſguiſed by them, that their oldeſt friends ſcarcely knew them.

Muſt not the people always have their maſquerades? ſaid one of my friends, who obſerved my ſurprize, whether it be men dreſſed in a tunic or a harlequin's jacket; like punch, or a Turkiſh nobleman; with a hat *a la Henri* IV, or with the cap of folly; it is ſtill a maſquerade; and it is indiſpenſably neceſſary to thoſe who govern, in order to influence the minds of the people, whoſe reaſon is ſeated in their eyes.

Moſt of the houſes were as much diſguiſed as the inhabitants; thoſe of tradeſmen, taverns, public-houſes, &c. were covered with patriotic emblems, liberty-ſigns, daubed over with the national colours, &c. It ſeemed as if the people, afraid of forgetting that they were free, were reſolved to have objects to remind them of it perpetually before their eyes. There were altars to liberty, ſtatues of liberty, liberty ſquares; liberty was every where inſcribed, but I never could find any one capable of defining the nature of French liberty. If it were poſſible that a foreigner, ignorant of our revolution, could have come to Paris, he would have been induced to believe that a new horde of Vandals had taken poſſeſſion of the city; for he would have every where deſcried the ruin of ſome edifice, which had been deſtroyed, becauſe it was conſtructed under the ancient government; and, in moſt of the decent houſes, this death warrant—*National property*.

I viſited the different theatres, the number of which was conſiderably augmented, but to the prejudice of the dramatic art, of manners, and of morals. They no longer performed any of thoſe maſterly productions, which had dignified the French theatre. The public no longer thought with Corneille, no longer wept with Racine, no longer laughed with Moliere; Cinna, Polieucte, Athalie, Zaire, Le Tartuffe, Le Miſanthrope, had all been baniſhed from the ſtage as royaliſts; they were as unknown to the Pariſians as Numa, Metellus,

Scipio, Fabius, or the Knights of the Round Table. Inſtead of the chef-d'auvres of the human mind, we ſaw pieces the moſt diſmal and tireſome; ſtupid comedies, very patriotic, but utterly deſtitute of probability, nature, or intereſt. I did not know whether to aſcribe this change to the bad taſte of the author who wrote for the ſtage, or to that of the public. The audience was no longer compoſed, as formerly, of enlightened amateurs, whom a refined education, a pure taſte, and a ſolid judgment, invited to the enjoyment of the moſt noble, as the moſt delightful of all recreations.

The boxes were filled with abandoned women, and contractors ſtill more abandoned, who came to make a moſt indecent diſplay of the fruits of their proſtitution or of their rapine, and to inſult the public miſery by their ſhameful luxury. If here and there was ſeen by chance ſome decent man or woman, they appeared humiliated at finding themſelves in ſuch company.

The pit was filled with perſons of all deſcriptions, moſt of them without knowledge, education, or diſcernment, applauding the moſt inſipid jokes, or the moſt groſs obſcenities. On expreſſing my ſurprize at this to my friends, they anſwered, 'You would be leſs aſtoniſhed, if you had witneſſed, like us, the events which have had an influence on the taſte of Frenchmen; this nation is no longer the ſame that it was; ſeven years of a revolution, unexampled in the annals of the world, have totally changed the inclinations and character of the people. They have ceaſed to laugh, and muſt have ſomething extraordinary to amuſe them. Accuſtomed, during that period, to the moſt ſanguinary ſcenes, to the harangues of thoſe furious orators, who ſhowed them happineſs in perſpective, and gave them miſery in reality, they are no longer pleaſed with ſimple and natural repreſentations, but require, on the ſtage, ſupernatural ſcenes: hence theſe monſtrous productions, this enfeebled ſtyle, and theſe improbable incidents, which are only aſtoniſhing to ſuch as have their taſte ſtill uncorrupted, or who are ſtrangers to the effects of the revolution.

The famous Muſeum contained a heap of precious articles, taken away from foreign countries, and from the confiſcated cabinets of the curious. Every day a freſh ſupply arrived, and the whole formed perhaps the moſt complete collection of curioſities which ever exiſted. But the ſight of them only excited, in my mind, ſentiments of grief and pain. The ſcarceſt ſtones were obſcured in my eyes by the means by which they had been acquired. I could not look at the moſt eſteemed picture, without reflecting that its maſter had, doubtleſs, either periſhed on the ſcaffold, or elſe dragged on a miſerable exiſtence in ſome obſcure corner of the globe; and the moſt beautiful ſtatue appeared to me ſtained with the blood of ſome unfortunate being. Let us quit this place, ſaid I to my friends—the richeſt collection can have no charms for me when I know it to be the fruit of injuſtice, perſecution, and violence.

My conductors made me obſerve the ſpirit of jobbing (*agiotage*) which prevailed univerſally, and extended to every article; ſilks, coals, mandats, wood, ſhoes, butter; it infected rich and poor, young and old, women and children. Jobbing ſeemed to be ſtill more neceſſary to the Pariſians than plays.

Honeſt men ruined by the revolution, jobbed like the reſt; it was the only means of ſubſiſtence that remained to them. Never had the circulation of money, or its repreſentative, been ſo rapid; people bought and ſold, and re-bought what they had ſold in order to ſell it again. This was called trade; but it was a wretched trade, which only tended to enrich a few rogues.

Certain perſons turned uſurers, and lent money at the moderate intereſt of five or ſix *per cent. per month.* The love of gain had ſtifled every generous impulſe of the heart, and de-

graded every mind; but what afflicted me moſt, was to ſee immorality, irreligion, and a total abſence of all principle, among the great maſs of the people. I fancied myſelf in a nation of atheiſts. The children were brought up in that perſuaſion; they had no reſpect nor conſideration for their parents, who inſtilled into their minds no one principle of religion or morality; they lived like beaſts, without that reſtraint which checks the indulgence of human paſſions, without that conſolatory idea which ſoothes the pain, and without that beneficent reſignation which teaches man to ſupport it.

I ſhuddered as I reflected on the perverſeneſs of the ſucceeding generation, which I could not but conſider as a ſcourge, not leſs dangerous to France herſelf, than to her neighbours. I ſaw irreligion to ſtifle the ſentiment of nature in the hearts of men, and ſilently deſtroy among the people the principles of ſocial order. Conſidered in this point of view, hiſtory preſented to my mind a horrible picture of crimes and calamities; the earth appeared to my imagination covered with a deadly veil, more ſiniſter than the ſtandard that is diſplayed in the days of revolt, more gloomy and more alarming than the black flag, which covers the lofty towers of a city infected with the plague. Already were the dreadful effects of this profligacy viſible; nothing was talked of but theft, murder, and ſuicide; the country was uninhabitable; and, at the approach of winter, every one fled to the towns in ſearch of that ſecurity, which was not to be found, for even there crimes were triumphant. At one time we heard of a mother and her daughters ſtripped of their all, and afterward violated by brutal ruffians; at another, of a ſtage ſtopped and robbed, and all the paſſengers murdered, that no proof might be left againſt the culprits; here, a child, ten years old, though taken in the fact, denied the theft with unparalleled effrontery; and there, the father of a family plunged in the river, that he might not ſurvive the miſery of ſeeing his children periſh with want.

Alas! I one day exclaimed, when, ſhut up with my friends, we were deploring the fatal effects of this political ſcourge, ſuch then are the fruits of that revolution, which was to atchieve the happineſs of the world! Wherever I caſt my eyes I perceive nothing but crimes, hatred, and vengeance. It was thought that nothing more was neceſſary to enſure happineſs than a revolution; but how can that edifice be durable, which is founded on the moveable baſis of immorality and error?

DESCRIPTION *of the* SALT MINES *of* Wielitſka, *in* Poland. *By* J. PESCHIER, *M. D.**

THE village of Wielitſka lies at the diſtance of two leagues to the ſouth-weſt of Cracow; it is ſituate on the gentle declivity of a cultivated mountain, and is very populous. Theſe valuable mines were diſcovered in the year 1251, and ſince that time they have been conſtantly worked; but it is only ſince the late changes effected in the political ſtate of Poland that the working of them has been carried on with the preſent degree of ſpirit.

The deſcent into theſe mines is through ſquare pits, twenty fathoms in depth, and from twelve to fourteen in diameter, cut through the pure ſalt, if we except a few fathoms of earth by which they are covered. There are ſix of them, of different dimenſions, diſtant about a hundred feet from each other, and which all communicate with each other internally.

This deſcent, which is attended with ſome novelty, in ſome excites

* From the Journal Britannique, publiſhed at Geneva by profeſſor Pictet.

ſear rather than curioſity. Thoſe who viſit it are ſeated in a ſort of chair made of ropes, and ſtrongly attached to a thick rope, which paſſes round a large wheel moved by a horſe, and which is thus let down into the pit. From two to ten perſons may be ſeated around this rope, provided they hold very faſt with their hands; but if they are ſubject to giddineſs, they muſt then be ſecured by a girdle which paſſes round the body. It is cuſtomary before they deſcend to offer up a ſhort prayer, which adds conſiderably to the awfulneſs of the preparation for the deſcent; but the efforts which each afterward makes to conceal his terror on viewing the vaſt and obſcure pit, the extremities of which they dare not conſider, generally overcome every ſenſation of timidity, and the ſix minutes employed in reaching the bottom ſoon glide away amid mirth and ſecurity.

When you arrive at the depth of ten fathoms you find yourſelf in freſh and agreeable air, and afterward experience only very ſlight modifications of the temperature till you reach the bottom, the depth of which is twenty fathoms.

On reaching the bottom of the pit, a great number of the workmen flock round you offering you their ſervices; and you then find yourſelf in the centre of ſix radii, each of which forms an extenſive gallery. It is at this centre that ſalt dug from the mine is collected, and conveyed to the top of the pit by means of the ſame rope that brings down thoſe who viſit it from curioſity.

The firſt remarkable object that occurs is a magnificent altar, of moderate dimenſions, cut out of the pureſt ſalt, and decorated with four columns ten feet in height, one and a half in diameter, and perfectly tranſparent: it is ornamented all around with ſculpture repreſenting the attributes of the vine and agriculture: on the right is Jeſus on the croſs, of the natural ſize, and executed with great elegance; on the left is a ſaint in the attitude of offering up his devotions, the work of the ſame chiſel: three ſteps conduct to the altar, which is richly ornamented with elegant veſſels of ſalt; and the whole receives a very remarkable degree of ſplendour from about thirty ſmall flambeaux lighted around it.

In this place the ſalt is remarkably pure, and is diſtinguiſhed by the name of *ſcibika*; the ſecond kind, which is found at the diſtance of a few fathoms, is mixed with argil, and is called *grun*; the third, called *ſpiza*, is mixed with calcareous earth, argil, and water: the argil is almoſt always of a ſchiſtous form and of a dark gray colour; in ſome morſels it ſerves as a baſe to the calcareous earth, diſpoſed with great elegance in cottony balls, exceedingly white and of different ſizes.

The ſtrata of ſalt are always parallel to the ſurface of the mountain; but no regularity has hitherto been obſerved in the reſpective ſituations of the different ſtrata: they are often ſeparated from each other by ſtrata of argil, and in ſome places interſected by veins of calcareous ſpar: where the air is dampeſt the ſoil falls into a ſtate of efflorescence, and is remarkably white; every where elſe the colour varies from blackiſh blue to a dirty white. Where the water is collected and remains the ſalt diſſolves, and then ſhoots into very regular cubic cryſtals: cryſtals of the like kind are found ſometimes buried in the mountain itſelf; the cryſtallization found there is quite formed in the manner of four ſteps of equal dimenſions, which, placed in a ſquare, and converging toward a centre, form a pyramid of great elegance and regularity.

We proceeded from the altar through a large alley fifteen feet in height and twelve in breadth, entirely cut out in the ſalt, which conducted us to an immenſe magazine filled with caſks. This cavity, of an enormous ſize, conſtructed at the depth of 120 feet below the ſurface of the earth, was ſupported only by four pillars of ſalt, and theſe even were conſidered

as ſuperfluous. The ſides of this hall conſiſt of ſalt more or leſs pure, which reflected the rays of light proceeding from our lamps in a thou and different points. We then directed our courſe to a large ſtair of a hundred ſteps, each nearly fifteen feet in length and one in breadth, covered with planks to preſerve the angles of them: by this ſtair we deſcend twenty-five fathoms without experiencing any very ſenſible change in the temperature; the dampneſs of the air even is ſo weak, that planks which have been in uſe for upward of a hundred years, and at the depth of 270 feet below the ſurface of the earth, appear ſtill as freſh as if new. The workmen aſſured me that they experienced almoſt the ſame degree of heat during the whole year: the air here is ſo ſurcharged with ſalt that the ſaline particles are depoſited on the hair, eyebrows, and eyelaſhes of the workmen.

We ſoon arrived at a hall of as great extent as the former, in which the miners were employed in digging out the ſalt with great activity. By the chiſel and gunpowder they ſometimes cut out blocks three feet in breadth, and ſufficiently thick to form three maſſes, each weighing 560 pounds. When the edges are rounded off, they give them the form of an elliptical caſk.

The workmen employed in theſe mines are in number 800; they work in the interior of the mine from five o'clock in the morning to one in ſummer, and from ſeven to three in winter. They are naked to the middle, (which announces a very mild temperature) and are not ſubject to any particular malady: their paleneſs ariſes from the want of light and bad nouriſhment. They have nothing to dread but the terrible exploſions which often burſt forth from places formerly worked and now cloſed up. At the moment when they enter with their lamp, the air ſeems as if traverſed by flaſhes of lightning in every direction: the combuſtion is ſudden, extends to the neighbouring galleries, extinguiſhes the lamps, and ſeverely ſcorches the workmen if they do not throw themſelves flat on their faces.

We now deſcended a ſecond magnificent ſtaircaſe to the depth of 30 fathoms more, and of 450 feet below the ſurface of the mountain, where we found horſes yoked to a wheel like the former, and which ſerves to move the rope that brings up the ſalt dug out in the lower galleries. Theſe animals paſs the greater part of their lives in theſe ſubterranean regions, and yet enjoy good health. At ſome diſtance is a large ſtable, with ſix pair of horſes, which relieve each other. Being here ſtruck with a ſtrong ſmell of ſulphur, I found that it aroſe from the diſengagement of ſulphurized and phoſphorated hydrogen gas, produced by the fermentation of the horſes' dung, and, in my opinion, muſt greatly contribute toward thoſe aërial exploſions of which I have ſpoken.

We next proceeded to a neighbouring gallery, where, after two hours' reſpectful admiration, we were filled with a ſentiment of aſtoniſhment and ſurpriſe which it is impoſſible for me to deſcribe. Through the enormous maſs of ſalt, which preſents to the eye no interruption in its ſaline texture, and at the depth of 450 feet, flows a ſtream of pure freſh and tranſparent water, which is received in large wooden veſſels, where the workmen and horſes of theſe ſubterranean regions quench their thirſt. As it was impoſſible that this ſpring could filter through the ſalt, nature, which buries her maſterpieces in the bowels of the deepeſt mountains, has placed in this monſtrous maſs of ſalt a ſtratum of clay ſufficiently thick to allow this ſtream of water, deſtined to refreſh the workmen, to paſs through it in ſuch a manner as to be protected from the action of the ſalt, of which a very ſmall quantity would injure its ſalubrity. To viſit a place where Nature ſeems to have ſcattered her gifts with profuſion, and to have concentrated her moſt valuable ſecrets, muſt be highly intereſting.

We now ſet out to quit the mines, and in our way found ſeveral other altars recently cut out from the ſalt, and in a very neat manner, which diſplayed conſiderable taſte. Having ſoon reached the bottom of one of the pits, we placed ourſelves, as before, on ſeats made of rope, and arrived in ſafety at the village of Wielitſka. By an eſtimation, made nearly fifty years ago, of the ſize of theſe mines, it appears that they extend from eaſt to weſt 6000 German feet, from north to ſouth 2000, and to the depth of more than 800.

The working of theſe mines, which gives bread to more than 400 families, enriches the village, and ſupplies the neighbouring countries with ſalt, produces more than 168,000 quintals per annum, and brings to the emperor a net profit of five millions of florins.

Such are the moſt intereſting circumſtances which I obſerved at the famous mines of Wielitſka, of which ſo many fabulous deſcriptions have been given, and againſt which people ought to be on their guard: it is even aſtoniſhing that where the mind can ſcarcely ſeize the grandeur of what nature preſents, the imagination ſhould ſtill be ſo lively as to ſee there 'people who never behold the light of the ſun, who inhabit ſubterranean villages, who govern themſelves according to their own laws,' &c.

During my ſtay at Cracow, I formed a deſign of viſiting alſo the ſalt mines or mountains of ſalt at Bochnia, five leagues ſouth-eaſt from Cracow, to which I repaired for that purpoſe; but I was not allowed to deſcend into them, for want of the neceſſary written orders. They are conſtructed like thoſe of Wielitſka; but the pits are deeper, and they contain more of that kind of ſalt called *ſchibika*. The ſalt, however, is neither ſo pure nor ſo various in its nature, nor are there to be ſeen in the latter any of thoſe maſterpieces of art above deſcribed. Large fragments of black wood and alabaſter are often found mixed with the ſalt.

SELECT AMUSEMENTS IN PHILOSOPHY AND MATHEMATICS.

By M. L. Despiau.

OF ECHOES; HOW PRODUCED; ACCOUNT OF THE MOST REMARKABLE ECHOES, AND OF SOME PHENOMENA RESPECING THEM.

ECHOES are well known; but however common this phenomenon may be, it muſt be allowed that the manner in which it is produced, is involved in conſiderable obſcurity; and that the explanation given of it does not ſufficiently account for all the circumſtances attending it.

All philoſophers almoſt have aſcribed the formation of echoes to a reflection of ſound, ſimilar to that experienced by light, when it falls on a poliſhed body; but, as D'Alembert obſerves, this explanation is falſe; if it were not, a poliſhed ſurface would be neceſſary for the production of an echo; but it is well known that this is not the caſe. Echoes, indeed, are frequently heard oppoſite to old walls, which are far from being poliſhed; near ſhapeleſs maſſes of rock, and in the neighbourhood of foreſts, and even of clouds. This reflection of ſound, therefore, is not of the ſame nature as that of light.

It is evident, however, that the formation of an echo can be aſcribed only to the repercuſſion of ſound; for echoes are never heard, but when ſound is intercepted and made to rebound by one or more obſtacles.

Sound, as already ſaid, is propagated in every direction by the vibration of the particles of the air; but if any column of air reſts againſt ſome obſtacle that prevents the direct movement of the elaſtic globules, which ſerve as the vehicle of ſound, it muſt rebound in a contrary direction, and

ſtriking the ear, if it meets with one in the line of repercuſſion, convey to it a repetition of the ſame ſound, provided the original ſound does not affect that organ at the ſame inſtant.

But we are taught by experience that the ear does not diſtinguiſh the ſucceſſion of two ſounds, unleſs there be between them the interval of at leaſt one twelfth of a ſecond; for during the moſt rapid movement of inſtrumental muſic, each meaſure of which cannot be eſtimated at leſs than a ſecond, twelve notes are the utmoſt that can be comprehended in a meaſure, to render the ſucceſſion of the ſounds diſtinguiſhable; conſequently the obſtacle, which reflects the ſound, muſt be at ſuch a diſtance, that the reverberated ſound ſhall not ſucceed the direct ſound, till after one twelfth of a ſecond; and as ſound moves at the rate of about 1142 feet in a ſecond, and conſequently about ninety five feet in the twelfth of a ſecond, it thence follows that, to render the reverberated ſound diſtinguiſhable from the direct ſound, the obſtacle muſt be at the diſtance of no more than about forty-eight feet.

There are ſingle and compound echoes. In the former, only one repetition of the ſound is heard; in the latter, there are two, three, four, five, &c. repetitions. We are even told of echoes that can repeat the ſame word forty or fifty times.

Single echoes are thoſe where there is only one obſtacle; but double, triple, or quadruple echoes, give us reaſon to ſuppoſe ſeveral obſtacles diſpoſed in ſuch a manner, that the different reflected ſounds ſtrike the ear at times ſenſibly different.

There are ſome echoes that repeat ſeveral words in ſucceſſion; but this is not aſtoniſhing, and muſt always be the caſe when a perſon is at ſuch a diſtance from the echo, that there is ſufficient time to pronounce ſeveral words before the repetition of the firſt has reached the ear.

There are certain echoes which have been much celebrated on account of their ſingularity, or of the number of times that they repeat the ſame word. Miſſon, in his deſcription of Italy, ſpeaks of an echo, in the vineyard of Simonetta, which repeated the ſame word forty times.

At Woodſtock, in Oxfordſhire, there is an echo which repeats the ſame ſound fifty times.

The deſcription of an echo ſtill more ſingular, near Roſneath, ſome miles diſtant from Glaſgow, may be found in the Philoſophical Tranſactions for the year 1698. If a perſon, placed at the proper diſtance, plays eight or ten notes of an air with a trumpet, the echo faithfully repeats them, but a third lower; after a ſhort ſilence, another repetition is heard, in a tone ſtill lower; and another ſhort ſilence is followed by a third repetition, in a tone a third lower.

A ſimilar phenomenon obſerved in ſome places is, that if a perſon ſtands in a certain poſition, and pronounces a few words with a low voice, they are heard only by another perſon ſtanding in another determinate place: this ariſes from the elliptic form of arches, which have the property of collecting in one of their foci the rays that proceed diverging from the other.

The following phenomenon depends on the ſame theory.

To conſtruct two figures, to be placed at the two ends of a hall, one of which ſhall repeat to the ear of a perſon what has been whiſpered into the ear of the other figure, without being heard by any other perſon in the hall.

Provide two heads or buſts, made of paſteboard, reſting on pedeſtals, and place them in a hall at ſuch a diſtance from each other as you may think proper. Then convey a tube of tin-plate, an inch in diameter, from the ear of one of the figures, through the pedeſtal on which it reſts, and below the flooring, till it reach the mouth of the other figure, paſſing through its pedeſtal in the ſame manner as that of the former: this tube muſt be a little wider at each of its extremities, ſomewhat in the form of a funnel.

When it is neceſſary to bend this tube, care muſt be taken to cover the interior angles with a piece of tin-plate inclined at an angle of forty-five degrees, that the voice may be directly reflected from one part of the tube to the other, and that the ſound may be conveyed diſtinctly to the ear.

This conſtruction will produce the following effect: if a perſon whiſpers into the ear of one of theſe figures, the words he pronounces will be diſtinctly heard by a ſecond perſon who applies his ear to the mouth of the other figure.

The ſecret of the magic mirror, as it is called, depends on the ſame theory. The conſtruction of this mirror is as follows:

Fix, in a vertical poſition, a concave mirror, two feet in diameter, and of ſuch a degree of curvature, that the focus of the rays which fall upon it, in a parallel direction, may be at the diſtance of twelve or fifteen inches from the reflecting ſurface. At this diſtance place a ſmall figure, but in ſuch a manner, that its head may be exactly in the focus.

This mirror muſt be placed at the diſtance of eight or ten feet from a wall oppoſite to it, and parallel to its ſurface: the wall muſt have in it an aperture, equal to the ſurface of the mirror, concealed by a very fine curtain, that the ſound may eaſily paſs through it. Provide alſo a ſecond mirror of the ſame form, with a ſimilar figure, and place it behind the wall at the diſtance of two or three feet from it, and oppoſite to the former, with the figure in its focus. It may be readily conceived, that when a perſon only whiſpers into the ear of the ſmall figure behind the wall, a perſon ſtanding near that placed in the focus of the oppoſite mirror, will hear very diſtinctly the words whiſpered into the ear of the former. In this manner, the perſon who aſks a queſtion, ſtanding near the firſt figure, hears the anſwer which is whiſpered into the ear of the other behind the wall,

In order to conceal entirely the apparatus, which produces this effect, and to render it much more extraordinary, the pretended concave magic mirror may be covered with a piece of gauze, which will not prevent the tranſmiſſion of the ſounds from the one focus to the other.

The Memoirs of the Academy of Sciences, at Paris, for the year 1692, ſpeak of a very remarkable echo in the court of a gentleman's ſeat, called Le Genetay, in the neighbourhood of Rouen. It is attended with this ſingular phenomenon, that a perſon who ſings or ſpeaks in a low tone does not hear the repetition of the echo, but only his own voice; while, on the other hand, thoſe who liſten hear only the repetition of the echo, but with ſurpriſing variations; for the echo ſeems ſometimes to approach and ſometimes to recede, and at length ceaſes when the perſon who ſpeaks remove to ſome diſtance in a certain direction. Sometimes only one voice is heard, ſometimes ſeveral, and ſometimes one is heard on the right and another on the left. An explanation of all theſe phenomena, deduced from the ſemicircular form of the court, may be ſeen in the above collection.

OF A NEW INSTRUMENT CALLED THE HARMONICA.

THIS inſtrument was invented in America by Dr. Franklin, who gave a deſcription of it to father Beccaria, which the latter publiſhed in his works, printed in 1773.

It is well known that when the finger, a little moiſtened, is rubbed againſt the edge of a drinking-glaſs, a ſweet ſound is produced; and that the tone varies according to the form, ſize, and thickneſs of the glaſs. The tone may be raiſed or lowered alſo by putting into the glaſs a greater or leſs quantity of water. Dr. Franklin ſays, that an Iriſhman, named Puckeridge, firſt conceived the idea, about twenty years before, of conſtructing an inſtrument with ſeveral glaſſes of this kind, adjuſted to the various tones, and fix-

ed to a ſtand in ſuch a manner, that different airs could be played upon them. Mr. Puckeridge having afterward been burnt in his houſe, along with this inſtrument, Mr. Delaval conſtructed another of the ſame kind, with glaſſes better choſen, which he applied to the like purpoſe. About fourteen or fifteen years ago, an Engliſh lady at Paris, performed, it is ſaid, exceedingly well on this inſtrument, which however did not long continue in vogue: at preſent it is confined to cabinets among other muſical curioſities.

A juggler, ſome years ago, to ſhow his dexterity, placed on a table eight glaſſes of the ſame ſize, which had all the ſame tone, and boaſted that he could tune them in an inſtant by pouring water into them, ſo as to play an air with the utmoſt preciſion. 'Thoſe who tune violins or organs,' ſaid he, 'are not ſo dexterous as I; ſince they often labour for a quarter of an hour, and try the ſame pipe or ſtring twenty times, before they can bring it to the proper tone.' While he pronounced theſe words he poured water into the eight glaſſes; then ſtriking them one after the other with a ſmall rod, he immediately ſhowed that they emitted, with great exactneſs, the tones of the gamut, *ut, re, mi, fa, ſol, la, ſi, ut*; and as he then amuſed the ſpectators by playing an air, which he accompanied with his voice, they overlooked the artifice he had employed in tuning his inſtrument ſo ſpeedily.

Each of the glaſſes had a ſmall hole at the proper height, ſo that when filled to the brim the water ran out till there remain no more than the quantity requiſite to give the glaſs the neceſſary tone. By theſe means, the inſtrument tuned itſelf in a moment; and the muſician had no occaſion to pour in, or pour out water, at different times, to render the tone graver or more acute.

ON WHAT IS CALLED A FALSE VOICE.

A FINE voice is certainly preferable to every inſtrument whatever. Unfortunately, many perſons have only a falſe voice; but, in general, this does not ariſe from any defect in the organs of the voice, which are almoſt the ſame in all mankind: it originates from the ears, owing to an inequality of ſtrength in theſe organs, or to ſome want of delicacy or tenſion, in conſequence of which, as they receive unequal impreſſions, we neceſſarily hear falſe ſounds, and the voice, which endeavours to imitate them, becomes itſelf falſe. On this ſubject Dr. Vandermonde made a very ſimple experiment, which he relates in his Eſſay on improving the human Mind, and which may be repeated on children who pronounce with a falſe voice, in order that a remedy may be applied at that tender age when the organs are ſtill ſuſceptible of modification.

The experiment, as he deſcribes it, is as follows: 'I made choice,' ſays he, 'of a clear day, and having fixed on a ſpacious apartment, I took up my ſtation in a place judged moſt convenient for my experiments. I then ſtopped one of the ears of the child who was to be the ſubject of them, and made her recede from me, till ſhe no longer heard the ſound of a repeating watch which I held in my hand, or at leaſt until the ſound of the bell produced a very weak impreſſion on her organs of hearing. I then deſired her to remain in that place, and immediately going up to her unſtopped her ear, and ſtopped the other, taking care to cauſe her to ſhut her mouth, leſt the ſound ſhould be communicated to the ear through the euſtachian tube. I then returned to my ſtation, and making my watch again ſtrike, the child was quite ſurpriſed to find that ſhe heard tolerably well; upon which I made a ſign to her to recede again till ſhe could ſcarcely hear the ſound.' It reſults from this experiment, that in the ears of perſons who have a falſe voice, there is an inequality of ſtrength; and the means of remedying this defect in children, is to aſcertain by a ſingular mode, which ear is the weak-

eſt. 'When this has been diſcovered, nothing better can be done, in my opinion,' ſays Dr. Vandemonde, 'than to ſtop up the other as much as poſſible, and to take advantage of that valuable opportunity of frequently exerciſing the weak ear, but in ſuch a manner as not to fatigue it. The one thus made to labour alone will be ſtrengthened, while the other will always retain the ſame force. The child's ear ſhould from time to time unſtopped, in order to make it ſing, and to diſcover whether both ears have the ſame degree of ſenſibility.' This natural defect may be then corrected, and any perſon may be made to acquire a true voice, provided the means pointed out by Dr. Vandermonde be early employed.

Perſons who have a falſe voice, in conſequence of ſome inequality in the ears, may be compared to thoſe who ſquint; that is to ſay, who, in order to ſee an object diſtinctly, do not turn equally toward it the axis of both eyes, becauſe they have not the ſame viſual powers. It is probable that the former, if they had early accuſtomed themſelves to make uſe of only one ear, would hear diſtinctly different ſounds which they would have imitated, and would not have contracted a falſe voice.

Of the BRUTE CREATION, *and a* PROPRIETY *of* USAGE *toward it.*

To the Editor of the Univerſal Magazine.

SIR,

IN general, animals expreſs a fear of man, as if aware of his power to moleſt and deſtroy them. But this fear ariſes rather from an inſtinct to ſelf-preſervation, in oppoſition to which, they have experienced a tendency in the uſage of man toward them, than from a natural timidity, or dread, of the human ſpecies. This becomes evident upon the appearance of a man, in thoſe barren and wild countries, inhabited only by irrational animals. Thoſe animals which, in civilized countries, regard him as an object to be avoided, here, ſportively ſkip around him, apparently to gratify a heedleſs curioſity, or an aſſociating fondneſs; or, if they flee from the ground which he traverſes, is it not on account of the novelty of his form and appearance? There is, indeed, in animals of the carnivorous ſpecies a mutual fear and diſtruſt, where nature has ordained the ſupport and exiſtence of one, to depend upon the deſtruction of another. But the ravenous diſpoſition which is the cauſe of this fear, is only to be looked upon as the effect of an inſtinctive motive to ſelf-preſervation—to the gratification of the calls of nature; and the reſiſtance to the apprehenſions of annihilation. It is only a concurrence of circumſtances, which makes this apparent cruelty, promiſcuous, undiſcriminating, and inceſſant. Animals, conſidered abſtractedly, muſt of courſe become ferocious toward each other, ſince they agree in their purſuits, which are only thoſe of ſuſtenance and propagation, but are incapable of regulating them by reaſon and order. For inſtance, Why is the prey poſſeſſed by one contended for by another? Becauſe the one is incapable of generoſity, in affording to others what it may not at preſent want: and the other of foreſight, by being incompetent to the certainty of obtaining a ſufficiency in a ſhort ſpace of time, and by a ſmall exertion of labour. All the enormities of the moſt monſtrous, cruel, and unreſtrained animals, may be traced to the ſource of their wants and fears, ariſing from the natural incentive to the ſupport of their exiſtence—an incentive, which is engrafted in their being, by that Providence, by whoſe power and goodneſs, we are created and protected; nor is it an incentive which is peculiar to the brute creation, or which excludes it from a ſhare in the

duties to, and dependances upon, univerſal nature. Human nature is rouſed and inſpired by it, and only differs in the equal participation of it, by poſſeſſing the intellectual power of moderation. But it is the exerciſe, not the poſſeſſion of regulating reaſon, which conſtitutes the grand difference between the human and brute creation. Nature forms an extenſive and united chain; the parts of it are the links, and theſe are inſeparable; their difference conſiſts only in their magnitude and properties. Vegetables depend upon the earth, which produces them; animals upon vegetables and themſelves; man depends upon, and has the free uſe, of all. But does the relation extend no farther? Can man ſay, 'My ſovereignty is complete?' No. He has to direct his attention to a ſuperior Being—to a Being ſuperlatively perfect; nor is he to omit conſidering, the uſe and the rules incidental to the uſe of that ſpecies which is inferior to him. It is not the work of his hands, nor was it created for his abuſe. The cruelty, the ferocity, and the groſſneſs of a part of the brute creation, who are unenlightened by a portion of thoſe luminous rays, which eſtabliſh mankind the baſis of intellectual relations, afford neither a model nor excuſe for his imitating conduct: and the fidelity, the ſervices, and the qualities of the other part, are very inadequate to the perfection to which he has the capacity of attaining. His motive to uſe the brute creation with humanity, and a certain degree of *tenderneſs*, are various and urgent; and it is the pre-eminent quality of his mind to feel the force of theſe motives, and to purſue them by practice. He has to conſider, that animals are formed with the ſame ſuſceptibility of bodily feeling as himſelf; and that they have neither voice nor reaſon to expreſs, or make their pain more tolerable. He has to conſider, that the deſtiny of animals is committed into his hands, ſince they are excluded from any future recompence; and that, therefore, mercy toward them becomes incumbent, both, as a duty, and an advantage, as a conciliation of the favor of our ſuperior relation, and almighty, and *merciful* Judge. He has to conſider, the great ſervices he receives from them; and laſtly, the affection conſequent to a well uſage of them, notwithſtanding the ferocity and wildneſs ariſing naturally, from an aſſociation with themſelves only, and the habit into which it will degenerate, yet there remains an inherent docility which human ſkill may turn to his advantage. To effect this, the application of chaſtiſement is always neceſſary, but the greateſt moderation muſt accompany it. Unſeaſonable and unremitted ſeverity will ſcarcely ever completely ſucceed; it is not leſs oppoſite to the nature of brutes than it is to the nature of man. We ſeldom obſerve one animal of ſuperior ſize and power bind another of a diſtinct ſpecies, to ſerve and aſſiſt it. This is to be done only, by the reaſon and ingenuity of man; and, yet, more is he able to accompliſh, what ſtrength and force alone are incapable of—to command the affections and gratitude of the brute creation. Not only may he avail himſelf of the ſervices of an animal, but receive them accompanied with cheerful and affectionate readineſs, with a joyous attention and attendance, and a ſpontaneous fidelity. Of this affection there have been innumerable, great, and ſtriking inſtances—inſtances that may excite the admiration and *bluſhes* of men. But ſince then the practice of cruelty toward animals is neither juſt, reaſonable, nor profitable, what can poſſibly be the inducement toward it? It is, in a great meaſure, pleaſurable gratification. A gratification, in forcing the exertions of an animal beyond what the ſtrength given to it by nature is able to ſupport—a gratification in adding tortures to death. And is it not far more grateful to human feelings, to act conſiſtently with *humanity*, and thereby to procure, or at leaſt to merit, the affection of one of

the moſt admirable and uſeful parts of the creation, than to exerciſe every opportunity of moleſting, torturing, and deſtroying it? Can a man of reflection really gratify his own feelings at the expence of thoſe which are equally ſenſible and poignant? Can he aſpire to conduct himſelf toward irrational creatures, as they conduct themſelves toward each other? or can he ſuppoſe there can be an act of courage on the one part, where there is no equality of proweſs on the other? Whether a man can actually realize any expectations of happineſs or ſatisfactory pleaſure by ſuch purſuits, he himſelf is alone capable of anſwering; but, at the ſame time, it muſt ſtrike him after a cool deliberation, (if he ever does, or can *deliberate*,) that he thereby renders himſelf much inferior to thoſe brutes which he treats with ſuch unmerited cruelty; to thoſe brutes, over which he exerciſes an abſolute dominion, excluſive of that *power*, which alone makes him worthy of it. And to aſk, whether he is entitled to a better fate than they, would be unreaſonable and abſurd.

I am, &c.

STRICTOR.

EXTRACTS FROM RENDER'S TOUR THROUGH GERMANY.

FRANCFORT—ABOLITION OF FUNERAL POMP.

DURING the reign of the late emperor Joſeph II. many ſalutary laws were eſtabliſhed in this and other imperial cities. It ought to be remarked, that all theſe ſtand immediately under the protection of the emperor; on which account he has a great influence in their government. This power in ſome degree extends, likewiſe, over all the German princes; and the emperor's commands are in general ſtrictly obeyed; particularly where they concern the intereſt of the whole empire.

The old cuſtom of indulging extravagantly in the expenſe of funeral pomp and coſtly mourning, by which many families had nearly ruined themſelves, has been altogether aboliſhed in Francfort, and almoſt throughout the empire.

A burial, including the mourning for the whole houſehold and relations, formerly often amounted (according to the rank and nobility of a family) to ſeveral thouſand guilders, and thoſe of leſs rank to ſeveral hundreds. At Francfort, in particular, funerals have been conducted with an uncommon degree of expenſive ſolemnity. Several men, clothed in black cloaks, with an appendage of a black veil of about three yards long, forming a train behind and ſweeping the ground, were employed for the ſpace of three days to invite about one hundred and fifty, or two hundred mourners, to walk in proceſſion after the coffin. All the family, relations, and friends of the deceaſed in the ſame dreſs, with each a lemon in his hand, accompanied the corpſe in ſo many mourning coaches. The bier was carried by twelve perſons, who in their way to the church-yard, according to the diſtance, ſtopped at intervals in the open ſtreet, and uncovered the coffin, to expoſe the face of the deceaſed. A band of ſingers, three days preceding the burial, aſſembled in the ſtreets before the houſe, chanting for an hour a ſolemn dirge. When the corpſe was carried to the ground, the ſingers followed in a coach, and chanted round the grave. The crucifix was at all funerals carried before the corpſe, without any regard to the particular religion of the deceaſed. That of a nobleman was conducted in the ſame manner, but with far greater pomp. It commenced in the night-time at eleven o'clock, and all the mourners and choriſters, amounting to ſeveral hundreds, with each a double torch in his hands, preceded the corpſe. This ſtrange and ruinous cuſtom was at once aboliſhed by law. At preſent a funeral in Germany, be the perſon

ever ſo rich, or even of the higheſt claſs of nobility, is not attended with an expenſe of more than fifty guilders, or about five pounds Engliſh, at the moſt; and thoſe of leſs fortune not more than ten guilders, and frequently not ſo much.

Theſe ſolemnities generally take place about the third or fourth day after the perſon's death. The body is interred without pomp, parade, or ſhow, an hour after daybreak. Mourning is wholly aboliſhed, and prohibited under a heavy penalty, even to the mere wearing of a black crape or riband.

This ſalutary law was firſt obſerved at the deſire of the amiable and much-beloved Landgravine of Heſſe Darmſtadt, who before her death commanded, that twelve private ſoldiers of the horſe-guards ſhould carry her remains to the grave, and to be buried in an adjacent grove of a public garden. Her grave is to be ſeen at the preſent moment; and many Engliſh families who travel through Francfort, go to Darmſtadt, which is diſtant about twelve Engliſh miles, in order to viſit her tomb; on the top of which ſtands a ſmall urn of white marble, which the great Frederic II. king of Pruſſia, ſent from Potſdam with this ſhort epitaph engraven on it, namely, 'To the memory of my beloved friend and dear relation,' in token of the eſteem he had for that univerſally beloved princeſs. Her example was followed by her huſband, the late landgrave of Heſſe Darmſtadt. He was a true friend of mankind, and ſo peculiarly attached was he to his army, that he deſired to be buried among his ſoldiers.

SALUTARY LAWS AGAINST BURYING THE DEAD IN CHURCHES.

About fifteen years ago a truly excellent law was paſſed, and obſerved with great punctuality, in Francfort, as well as in all other parts of the empire, of which the emperor Joſeph was the legiſlator, and which deſerves to be imitated in many foreign countries. This law prohibits the burying of dead bodies in any church or chapel whatever. Neither rank nor opulence can obtain permiſſion to evade it, in the enforcement of which no reſpect is paid to perſons. 'It is horrid (ſaid the deceaſed emperor) that a place of worſhip, a temple of the Supreme Being, ſhould be converted into a peſt-houſe for living creatures. A perſon, who upon his death-bed makes it a condition of his will to be buried in a church or chapel, acts like a madman; he ought to ſet his fellow creatures a good example, and not do all in his power to deſtroy their conſtitutions, by expoſing them to the effluvia ariſing from a corpſe in a ſtate of putrefaction.'

Since that time, the Germans have even begun to remove the burying-places a mile or two from every city or town; by which means they have aboliſhed, or paved the way toward aboliſhing, all the nonſenſical epitaphs and laughable inſcriptions which generally abound in churchyards, and too often diſgrace the memory they mean to celebrate; and have ſubſtituted for the offenſive cemetry an agreeable kind of garden, more calculated to inſpire calm devotion than ſentiments of horror.

It is ſhocking to contraſt this with many ſmall towns in European countries, where there may frequently be ſeen fourteen or fifteen churchyards, when one on an extenſive ſcale, out of the town, would be fully ſufficient to anſwer every good purpoſe*.

THE WESTPHALIAN SECRET TRIBUNALS

Are firſt mentioned, as generally known in the year 1220, and report-

* During my reſidence at the univerſity of Cambridge, I obſerved that half the ſpace of the town conſiſted of churchyards. There are no leſs than fifteen pariſhes, and as many churchyards; and it is remarkable, that many of them contain a public pump! Even in the city of London there are ſeveral public pumps, either in churchyards or cloſe to them; and it is very ſingular, that the water is generally eſteemed for its excellence.

ed to have been in force to the year 1665. They were never formally abrogated, but loſt their influence by degrees, as the ſword of juſtice was wielded by vigorous hands. The Weſtphalian Secret Tribunals were at firſt only deſigned for that country alone, and had no juriſdiction whatever elſewhere. The extent of their power was limited on the weſt by the Rhine, on the eaſt by the Weſer, on the north by Frieſland, and on the ſouth by the 'Weſterwald,' *i. e.* the weſtern Foreſt and Heſſe.

The emperor being ſupreme judge of all ſecular courts of judicature in Germany, was alſo the ſole inſtitutor and chief of all tribunals.

Free counties, being certain diſtricts comprehending ſeveral pariſhes, where the judges and counſellors of the ſecret ban adminiſtered juſtice, conformably to the territorial ſtatutes. A free county contained ſeveral tribunals ſubject to the control of one *maſter of the chair*, 'Stuhlherr.' Theſe maſters of the chair, who commonly were ſecular or eccleſiaſtical princes, held their appointment by the will of the emperor, which they forfeited by deciding in matters not within their juriſdiction, or on deviating from the laws of the free tribunals. They appointed the *free counts*, 'Frey-Grafen,' who were preſidents of particular tribunals of the ſecret ban. They were preſented by the maſters of their chair to the emperor for confirmation, who were made reſponſible for them, upon which they were inveſted with the royal ban, and obliged to ſwear fealty and obedience to the head of the empire. The latter alſo could puniſh the free counts, or deprive them of their office; occupy the ſeat of a free count in the tribunals, decide in matters of appeal brought before him, inſpect and reform the tribunal, and appoint the free knights, *i. e.* 'Frey-Schoffen;' but this was not confined to the territory of Weſtphalia.

The number of theſe free knights, belonging to each tribunal, never was leſs than ſeven, nor did it amount to more than eleven. Seven free knights, at leaſt, were required to compoſe a plenary court, *i. e.* 'Vollgericht,' in which the final ſentence was pronounced. Knights of other tribunals were indeed permitted to be preſent on theſe occaſions as viſitors, but were not allowed to give their vote. On their reception they promiſed upon oath, to give information to the ſecret tribunal of every thing coming under its juriſdiction, perceived by themſelves, or reported to them by credible perſons, and not to ſuffer any thing created between heaven and earth, to divert them from the execution of their duty. They alſo bound themſelves to promote the intereſt of the ſacred Roman empire, and to invade the poſſeſſions of the maſters of the chair, and of the free counts, only on legal grounds. After having taken this oath, they were not permitted to reveal, even to their confeſſors, the ſecrets of the tribunal; and on tranſgreſſing this law, though only in the moſt trifling point, they were hanged without mercy. They pronounced judgment according to the ſtatutes of the Weſtphalian ſecret tribunal, and executed it conformably to the decrees of the free counts. They knew each other by certain ſecret ſigns.

The original conſtitution of the ſecret tribunals did, however, not long continue in force; all ſorts of abandoned characters being admitted. The number of free knights allowed to every tribunal was originally limited to eleven, but in a ſhort time many of them amounted to ſixty or ſeventy, who even were not poſſeſſed of an inch of landed property in Weſtphaly, and were induced by ſelf-intereſt, ambition, and revenge, or ſome other diſgraceful motive, to join the aſſociation. The meeting-places of the members of the the ſecret tribunals degenerated into haunts of ſanguinary banditti, who indiſcriminately aſſaſſinated the innocent with the guilty. The maſters of the chair being actuated by the moſt ſordid avarice, they divided the free countries into numerous ſmaller ſeats

of juſtice, whereby the number of ſpies and ſecret informers naturally was increaſed to a moſt prodigious degree, and various opportunities offered for fraud, impoſition, and extortion. Although they were originally authorized to pronounce ſentence only in criminal caſes, in order to increaſe their fees they, at length, interfered in private and domeſtic affairs, and contrived to lay even counts and princes under contribution. On their admiſſion, they vowed in the moſt ſolemn and awful manner, to judge with incorruptible impartiality, to regard no perſon, and even to be deaf to every emotion of the heart, in framing their decrees; but on the contrary, they were ſwayed by ſelfiſhneſs, acceſſible to corruption, partial to their friends, while they proſecuted their enemies with the moſt rancorous malice, and proſtituted their function by rendering their authority ſubſervient to the gratification of the moſt brutal luſt. They were deaf to the lamentations of calumniated innocence, aſſaſſinated their relations to inherit their eſtates, and were more dreadful to the virtuous than the midnight ruffian. A free count frequently acted at once as witneſs and judge: the ſpy, informer, witneſs, and judge, were in many inſtances united in the ſame perſon; in ſhort, the abuſes which diſgraced the ſecret tribunals, rendered them a real curſe to mankind.

In the beginning of the 15th century, their power in Germany roſe to a moſt alarming degree; and we may ſafely maintain that the German empire at that time contained more than 140,000 free knights, who, without either previous notice or trial, executed every one who was condemned by the ſecret ban. Auſtrians, Bavarians, Franconians, and Suabians, having a demand on any one whom they could not bring to juſtice before the regular courts of this country, applied to the Weſtphalian ſecret tribunal, where they obtained a ſummons, and in caſe of non-appearance, a ſentence, which was immediately communicated to the whole fraternity of free knights, a ſtep by which were put in motion a hoſt of executioners, bound by the moſt dreadful oath to ſpare neither father nor mother, nor to regard the ſacred ties of friendſhip or matrimonial love. If a free knight met a friend condemned by the ſecret ban, and gave him only the ſlighteſt hint to ſave his life by flight, all the other free knights were bound to hang him ſeven feet higher than any other criminal. The ſentence being pronounced in the ſecret ban, they were obliged to put it into immediate execution, and not permitted to make the leaſt remonſtrance, though they were perfectly convinced that the victim was the beſt of men, and innocent of the crime alleged againſt him. This induced almoſt every man of rank and power to become a member of that dreadful aſſociation, in order to ſecure himſelf againſt its effects. Every prince had ſome free knights among his counſellors, and the majority of the German nobility belonged to that ſecret order. Even princes, for inſtance, the duke of Bavaria and the margrave of Brandenburgh were members of the ſecret tribunal. The duke William of Brunſwic is reported to have ſaid: 'I muſt order the duke Adolphus of Schleſwic to be hanged, if he ſhould come to ſee me, leſt the free knights ſhould hang me.' It was difficult to elude the proceedings of the free knights, as they at all times contrived to ſteal at night, unknown and unſeen, to the gates of caſtles, palaces, and towns, and to affix the ſummons of the ſecret tribunal. When this had been done three times, and the accuſed did not appear, he was condemned by the ſecret ban, and ſummoned once more to ſubmit to the execution of the ſentence; and in caſe of non-appearance, he was ſolemnly outlawed, and then the inviſible hands of free knights followed all his ſteps till they found an opportunity of taking away his life. When a free knight thought himſelf too weak to ſeize and hang the culprit, he was bound to purſue him till

he met with ſome of his colleagues, who aſſiſted him in hanging him to a tree, near the high road, and not to a gibbet; ſignifying thereby that they exerciſed a free imperial judicature throughout the whole empire, independent of all provincial tribunals. If the devoted victim made reſiſtance, ſo as to compel them to poignard him; they tied the dead body to a tree, fixing the dagger over his head, to ſhow that he had not been murdered, but executed by a free knight.

Their tranſactions were ſhrouded in the moſt profound concealment: and the ſignal by which they recogniſed one another never could be diſcovered. Their ſecret proceedings were not permitted to be diſcloſed to the emperor himſelf, although he was ſupreme maſter of the chair. Only when he aſked, 'Has N. N. been condemned?' the free knights were allowed to reply in the affirmative or negative: but when he inquired, 'Who had been condemned by the ſecret ban?' they were not permitted to mention any name.

The emperor, or his delegate, could create free knights no where but on the 'red ſoil,' *i. e.* Weſtphaly, with the aſſiſtance of three free knights, who acted as witneſſes. The real ſignification of the term, *red ſoil*, and the reaſon why it was applied to Weſtphaly, has not yet been traced out; but during my ſtay in that country, I learnt the following particulars concerning it, which ſeemed to me moſt probable. They informed me, that the terms *red ſoil* were uſed as a nickname, to diſtinguiſh the Weſtphalian country, in which this abominable bloody tribunal had been firſt eſtabliſhed, from thoſe milder ones of the ſame kind in Germany. For *red ſoil*, i. e. 'Rother grund,' or 'Himmelsſtrich,' or 'Himmels gegend,' became its moſt forcible and current name, from a noble family, which was ſucceſſively ſubject to the barbarity of thoſe bloodhounds. When any of its deſcendants happened to aſk, what had become of their anceſtors, they were generally anſwered with the nickname, 'They have wandered to the *Red ſoil*,' i. e. to the *Soil that is ſtained with blood*. For *red* ſignifies in the German not only *roth*, but alſo *blood red*; and *ſoil* ſignifies *Erde*. Thus '*blutrothe erde*,' '*blood-red ſoil*.'

Account *of the* Diverſions *and* Entertainments *of the* Inhabitants *of* Peterſburg.

[From Storch's Picture of Peterſburg.]

THE diverſions and amuſements of the politer part of mankind, are, by the extent of civilization and the regular intercourſe of nations, now become ſo much alike in all countries, that the account of them taken from one capital would nearly ſuit all others: the popular diverſions, however, ſtill almoſt every where bear the ſtamp of a certain peculiarity, which may not unfrequently be regarded as a remarkable addition to the hiſtory of its manners. Beſides, if it be true, that the moſt delicate features and properties of the national character are principally diſplayed in the methods adopted for indulging in mirth, it will be well worth our while to quit for a few moments, the elegant circles where joy is circulated, like money, under the ſtamp of conventional decorum, in order to mix among the great multitude where every perſon may rejoice in the way moſt agreeable to himſelf.

The Ruſſian, on the whole, is a chearful being. A happy volatility and thoughtfulneſs peculiar to himſelf accompany him through life. The moſt penurious condition and the moſt toilſome labour leave him always ſome ſenſibility for the enjoyment of his exiſtence. The former gives him no concern, as his circle of ideas ſeldom extends to the repreſentation of a nobler and more refined ſtate of being: and

the latter he mitigates by ſinging his country ballads, and taking a drop of brandy. The verge at which this excellent ground-colour in the national character gradually fades away, is the line of partition between the populace and the citizen. The higher the claſſes of mankind, the leſs natural is their mirth. In the boxes of the opera and the brilliant circles, the countenances here are as gloomy as in any capital in Europe. A convincing proof, that content and ſatisfaction are not confined to the ſoil of politeneſs and wealth.

The cheerful diſpoſition of the common Ruſſians being chiefly manifeſted by *ſinging*, that may well deſerve to be mentioned as the moſt general amuſement. Every employment, even the moſt laborious, the Ruſſian alleviates by *ſinging*, and every ſatisfaction, every amuſement is by the ſame means heightened and improved. There is certainly not a nation in Europe, in which the propenſity to this amuſement is ſo prevalent as in this. In France the people ſing likewiſe; but only opera-airs and vaude-villes which are admired by the genteel part of the public; whereas in Ruſſia are heard the true popular ditties, compoſed and ſet to muſic by the inferior claſſes of the populace, and are ſung in the very ſame manner in every town and village from Peterſburg to Irkutſk. The national intereſt contained in the ſubjects of theſe ballads, their extreme ſimple but melodious tunes, the muſical diſpoſitions, and generally well formed organs of the Ruſſians, produce a very agreable and ſurprizing effect, even on unmuſical ſtrangers and foreigners. It is, therefore, a very cuſtomary recreation of the higher ranks in St. Peterſburg, to take with them in the boat, on their parties of pleaſure on the water, a band of expert ſingers to ſing to them the popular Ruſſian ballads, a practice likewiſe often uſed at their tables at home. In ſummer the Neva is covered with boats, from which theſe ſongs reſound, and particularly on fine evenings delight the ears of the ſolitary walkers on the quays, lulling them into ſweet reveries, or awaking in them mild ſenſations by their ſoft and plaintive tones.

DANCING.

When the Ruſſian populace are diſpoſed to be merry in company, the *Dance* cannot be omitted. Without ſinging and dancing there can be no junketting. Certainly no popular dance in any country can be more expreſſive and diverting than the national dance commonly called the dove-dance (*golubetz*), and it is well danced, not only in the politer circles of the higher ranks, but even by the populace. It is generally performed by one couple who ſtand facing one another at ſome diſtance, ſeemingly make love together, and by very energetic pantomimical geſtures, by turns ſue, reject, importune, diſdain, and comply; in all which the perſonal talents of the dancers, the modeſt ſolicitations of the lover, and the affected coyneſs of the fair one, form the greater or leſs variety of ſhades. The dancers approach and retreat in certain meaſured ſteps which, however, are not ſtrictly connected with the muſic. As this dance is throughout a natural ſtrongly expreſſive pantomime, art can add little or nothing to its improvement: I have ſeen it more frequently well danced among the common people than in genteel companies, but only once to perfection by experienced popular dancers. The muſic to which it is danced is extremely ſimple; often no inſtrument at all is uſed, but the byſtanders ſing in chorus ſome vulgar ballad to the tune.

PUBLIC HOUSES.

The public-houſes frequented by the populace are called kabaks. In theſe they aſſemble at idle hours to ſing and to carouze. The waſte made here occaſionally by the rude and uneducated vulgar of their hard earned money in the indulgence of their ſenſual appetites, excites our pity when we happen accidentally to be the ſpec-

tators of it; but it never could induce me to condemn theſe places of refuge to the moſt oppreſſed and harraſſed claſs of people. What mortal could have the heart to deprive theſe poor creatures of the only means they know of compenſating the innumerable troubles of their lives, and to obtain by brandy a momentary oblivion of their cares? who could have the heart to rob them of that ſole relief, without ſubſtituting a better for it? Not to inſiſt here on the arguments that might be drawn from the climate, the hard manner of life, the wretched fare, and the ſtrict faſts of the Ruſſian people, as an apology for the uſe of this *nepenthe*, I ſhall only appeal to the humanity of the reader, in hopes of obtaining a favourable judgment of the ſombre tints of this characteriſtic. Far from wiſhing to palliate or excuſe the generally pernicious and often dreadful conſequences of the propenſity to intoxication, it is the utmoſt deſire of my heart, that the Ruſſian nation ſhould ſoon learn, by a farther moral improvement of their ſtill very rude condition, to diſpenſe with ſo deplorable a refuge from care: but I cannot condemn them according to their preſent circumſtances.

[Our readers may probably admit, that theſe humane obſervations may be extended to the populace of other nations, with which we are better acquainted!]

THE SWING.

I paſs over the leſs uſual games, in order to give a ſhort account of the great popular entertainments which are ſometimes here to be ſeen in their higheſt perfection. The moſt common and the greateſt favourite is the Swing, which every where, and at all times, is uſed as an amuſement by perſons of every rank and condition; but at Eaſter is the grand diverſion of the holidays. For getting an idea of this diverſion, we muſt firſt underſtand the mechaniſm of the ſwings here uſed. They may be divided into three ſorts: ſome have a vibrating motion, and thoſe are the moſt common, well known in Germany and England; others are turned round in a perpendicular, and others again in a horizontal direction. The firſt of theſe latter ſpecies conſiſts of two high poſts, on the top of which reſts an axle, having two pair of poles fixed in its centre. Each of theſe pair of poles has at its two extremities, a ſeat ſuſpended to a moveable axis. The proprietor, by turning the axis that reſts on the two poſts, makes all the eight ſeats go round in a perpendicular circle, ſo that they alternately almoſt touch the ground, and then are mounted aloft in the air. This laſt kind is compoſed of chairs, chariots, ſledges, wooden horſes, ſwans, goats, &c. faſtened at the extremities of long poles, and forced rapidly round in a horizontal circle. In the Eaſter holidays all kinds of machines are ſet up in the public ſquares, and, as the vulgar are remarkably fond of this diverſion, this is a joyful ſeaſon to the populace, who then devote themſelves, without reſtraint, to their natural propenſity to mirth. Nor do the ſuperior claſſes diſdain to aſſemble here as ſpectators, whereby a ſecond highly intereſting ſcene is created. The numerous concourſe of perſons of all ranks and deſcriptions who parade in a circle with their elegant and ſumptuous equipages, the honeſt merriment of the crowd, the hearty participation with which they enter into theſe amuſements, the ſtriking and ſingular appearances of the exhibition itſelf, give this popular feſtivity a character ſo peculiar, that the man of obſervation, who will take the pains to ſtudy the nation, even on this humorous ſtage, may catch very powerful ſtrokes of the pencil for his delineation. He will not fail to diſcern the general gaiety with which old and young, children and grey-beards are poſſeſſed, and which is here not kindled for a tranſitory moment, but is ſupported by a pleaſant occaſion, and placed in its moſt agreeable light. He will remark the ſpirit of urbanity and

gallantry appearing in a thouſand little ſallies, as by no means a indifferent feature in the national character. Here a couple of beggars with their clothes all in tatters, ſaluting one another in the moſt decent and reſpectful manner; a long ſtring of queſtions about their welfare opens the dialogue, which likewiſe concludes with a polite embrace. Yonder a young fellow is offering to hand his girl, whoſe cheeks are glowing with paint and brandy, into the ſeat in which they are both preſently to be canted up in the air; and even in theſe lofty regions his tenderneſs never forſakes him. At every anxious ſtart of his lady he throws one arm about her waiſt, while with the other he diſplays his complaiſance by a very expreſſive pantomime.—Only one ſtep farther, and the eye is attracted by quite different ſcenes. The very ſame people who were but now greeting each other in ſuch friendly terms, are engaged in a violent quarrel, in which they exhauſt the enormous ſtore of abuſive epithets in which the Ruſſian tongue abounds. All that can degrade and exaſperate a human being finds its expreſſion in this energetic language; yet with all this vehemence of ſpeech, they never loſe their temper. While they are making the moſt furious geſtures, ſtraining their throats to the utmoſt pitch, bearding one another with the moſt liberal profuſion of inſults, there is not the leaſt danger that they ſhould proceed to blows. The police, well-knowing that with all this noiſe, no lives will be loſt, cools the heated parties by a plentiful ſhower from the fire engine kept on the ſpot for that purpoſe; and which is found to be of ſuch excellent ſervice, that one of them is always at hand wherever a concourſe of people is expected. Now all at once the ſtriſe is over; the two vagabonds are running arm-in-arm to the neareſt pot-houſe to ratify their renovated friendſhip over a glaſs of brandy.

AMUSEMENTS OF THE HIGHER CLASSES.

The public amuſements of the higher claſſes of St. Peterſburg, by no means afford ſuch abundant matter for deſcription, as, from the general propenſity to pleaſure and the opulence of the inhabitants, we might be led to ſuppoſe. The eſtabliſhments for public recreation are here neither ſo numerous nor ſo ſumptuous as I have frequently found them in towns of far leſs pretenſions. The reaſon of this ſingular phenomenon is neither in the indiſpoſition of the public nor in the want of undertakers, but in the prevailing faſhion which is averſe to a public and unlimited participation. In all the capital towns that I have viſited, the contrary is ſo much the caſe, that it is by this very peculiarity, that they differ from places of inferior conſequence. At Paris, London, Berlin, and Vienna, thoſe entertainments are particularly preferred, in which every perſon, without exception, may participate. Almoſt all kinds of entertainments are public, that is, under certain conditions, are open to all. The enjoyment of them may be had at a comparatively very ſmall expence, and is even much enhanced by the participation of a great concourſe of perſons. The company of ladies is indiſpenſably neceſſary at all entertainments, ſoftening by their preſence, the harſh or rude manners into which even the beſt ſelected companies of men are liable to fall. In St. Peterſburg we ſee almoſt entirely the reverſe of this. What is called good company contracts itſelf into family-parties, circles of acquaintance, clubs, &c. to which a ſtranger, without eſpecial recommendation can with difficulty gain acceſs, and whoſe manners, for want of a proper mixture with a variety of characters and conditions, are apt to acquire a dull and formal ſtamp. It is held unbecoming to frequent public-houſes: people of any conſequence, heads of families, placemen, wealthy mer-

chants, never enter a coffee-houſe. Ladies can only viſit public places, at any time, under ſevere reſtrictions; from moſt of them they are abſolutely excluded by the laws and cuſtoms of ſociety. Hence it ariſes, that houſes opened for public entertainment here ſcarcely ever ſucceed, even though fitted up with great expence and taſte, and countenanced by the patronage of ſome perſon of rank and faſhion.

To make up for this deficiency, the Peterſburghers have inſtituted a variety of

CLUBS,

which are in more or leſs repute, according to the number and quality of their members. Even theſe, however, are not only cloſe but ſelect circles, where every member meets people of his own rank, his own way of thinking, and his own acquaintance; or table companies where there is tolerably good eating and drinking at a moderate price. The entertainment is generally confined to cards and the billiard-table. The politer part of the public profit little by theſe inſtitutions, notwithſtanding the great expence at which they are ſupported. The man of taſte very willingly does without them; the great multitude indeed flock to them; but theſe are never able to ſet the faſhion of a company.

One advantageous exception to this deſcription is formed by the Muſical Club; which, though it has departed from its original conſtitution, yet is at preſent in a very flouriſhing ſtate. Its appellation ſufficiently declares what it is in general. A great number of members, moſtly people of condition (in the latter times of the old club they amounted to about eight hundred) meet here in the autumn, winter, and ſpring, once a week, for the purpoſe of attending to an elegant concert. The performers are of the firſt ability, and are paid with ſuitable liberality. The female ſinger, Pozzi; the great performer on the violin, Giornoviclin, and ſeveral famous artiſts, natives and foreigners, were long the ornament of this ſplendid muſical entertainment; the two artiſts abovenamed, received for every evening on which they charmed the public by their talents, upwards of 100 rubles each (22l. 10s.)

The ENGLISH CLUB is diſtinguiſhed by the proper ſelection of its members, and regard to its deſign, is the next in rank to the muſical. Though play is likewiſe here the principal ſource of amuſement, yet it does not ſo abſolutely exclude all ſerious and rational converſation, as at the other clubs. How it obtained its denomination is uncertain, ſince it was neither eſtabliſhed ſolely by the Engliſh, nor is it excluſively frequented by them. Of this ſociety are people of moſt of the nations ſettled here, the number of whom is confined to three hundred, paying forty rubles (9l.) on admiſſion, and an annual ſubſcription of twenty rubles. The newſpapers and ſome monthly journals are taken in; and a commencement is made of a ſmall, but choice collection of books.

One of the moſt remarkable of the kind is the BURGHERS' CLUB, becauſe a great number of our reputable and wealthy burghers meet at it, and becauſe it is of great conſequence, by the influence it has on the ſentiments, the manners, and the purſes of that claſs of people. The majority of the members, who are about ſix hundred, conſiſts of mechanics and artiſts, principally German. It would not be ſaying too much, were we to affirm, that this club has given a peculiar, decided turn to the general behaviour and mode of living. The refreſhment and recreation naturally required by every man after the labours of the day, have been ſo heightened and refined among the generality of this ſort of people by the attractions of this inſtitute, that they would rather ſubmit to a privation of neceſſaries at home, than refuſe themſelves the ſatisfaction of attending here. Reaſonable as it is, that every induſtrious man ſhould be allowed his hours of re-

creation, get it is certainly detrimental to the general welfare, that the moſt uſeful and neceſſary claſs of people ſhould waſte a great part of the day in idle diſſipation. That luxury which has pervaded all ranks, has likewiſe got ſuch faſt hold here, by the unavoidable emulation of this numerous, and partly opulent claſs, and has arrived at ſuch a height, that impartial foreigners cannot behold the effects of it, without expreſſing their aſtoniſhment. It is by no means uncommon here, to play whiſt at ten rubles the rubber (2l. 5s.) or to ſee a handicraftſman drink a bottle of Rheniſh at his ſupper. The expenſive dreſſes in which the wives and daughters of theſe people appear on ball-days, is ſo much beyond all rule of propriety, that certainly, a foreigner would not be able to gueſs into what company he had got. Yet, of all the effects produced by the paſſion for clubs, none are more harmleſs and ridiculous than the curious pride that is here produced, and kept up by the intermixture with people of higher ſtations, by the neatneſs of the rooms, the elegance of the furniture, by the punctilious and prompt attendance of the waiters, and by the expence which the members are imperceptibly drawn into. Nothing, however, is more natural than that the maſter ſhoemaker, who here ſmokes tobacco and plays at cards in the company of placemen, officers, literary men, and merchants, and is reſpectfully waited on by footmen in handſome liveries, ſhould feel himſelf degraded on being ſent for by a court-counſellor, his fellow-member of the club, to take his meaſure for a pair of ſhoes. Hence ariſes the inſolence of this ſort of people, which proceeds to ſuch lengths, that it is only by the utmoſt politeneſs and compliance with their humour, that they can be prevailed on to ſerve their cuſtomers at a high price for their work.

LUXURY OF THE TABLE.

The Peterſburghers, expenſive as they are in lodging and domeſtic eſtabliſhment, are ſtill more ſo in the luxury of the table, which, in the judgment of all travellers, is here carried to a greater height than even at Vienna or Hamburgh. Regular entertainments are here not ſo frequent, and even on days when gueſts appear by invitation, the ſumptuouſneſs of our tables is not to be compared with the ſuperfluity that on ſimilar occaſions is ſerved up more for ſhew than for enjoyment: but the Peterſburgher has *every day* a well-furniſhed table, and it is daily ſet out in ſuch a manner as to enable him to receive and entertain ſuch of his friends as may happen to come in; whereas the Hamburgher, except when he gives his feaſt announced three weeks before hand, puts up with very homely fare, and ſeldom, or never, expects viſitors at dinner-time, without a formal invitation. The luxury in theſe articles of living is, therefore, not ſo conſpicuous, but certainly much greater.

In dreſſing the victuals, a ſingular mixture, in general, prevails, of German, French, Engliſh, and Ruſſian cookery. On the ſame table are ſeen roaſt beef raw, poignant ſauces, meat boiled to pieces, and fiſh baked in paſtry. The ſeveral articles, however, of this miſcellaneous repaſt are prepared in the higheſt taſte; and the judgment of the Peterſburgher, in theſe matters, is univerſally ſo juſt, that even the niceſt epicure is in no danger of riſing hungry from ſo motley a table.

In moſt houſes dinner begins with a cold diſh, to which ſucceeds the ſoup, generally in the French taſte. By theſe are ranged a number of ſide diſhes, dreſſed in various ways; always a great deal of butcher's meat, which is here excellent of all kinds; vegetables according to the ſeaſon of the year; that is, almoſt always a few weeks earlier than they could attain to maturity in the open air, for as ſoon as this is the caſe, in many houſes, they no longer appear on the

table at all: fish of the moſt exquiſite ſpecies, and in the greateſt variety, the abundant products of our rivers and lakes in all parts of the country: —materials enough for the moſt delicious combinations! The fondneſs for ſolid nutritious meats may, perhaps, originate from the climate, and among the Ruſſians, probably from their long faſts, which gives them a ſharper appetite for fleſh. Foreign delicacies, even in moderate families, are by no means rare, as Peterſburg can be ſupplied with them by ſea; and the markets are often ſo glutted with them, that they are frequently ſold for leſs than they coſt at home. The culture of orchard fruits has of late years been brought to ſuch a pitch, that at all times of the year the deſert may be ſet out with fine-flavoured fruit, if a man is able to pay the price, which indeed is enormous: ſubſtantial people provide themſelves with theſe articles from their own forcing-houſes ſomewhat cheaper. The number of diſhes is according to the taſte of the individual, without being bound by any laws of etiquette. In Ruſſian houſes much ſtreſs is laid on this matter; at the table of foreigners they are fewer, but greater care is taken in the ſelection. The cuſtom of being prepared to receive at any time uninvited gueſts obliges the miſtreſs of the houſe to have a few diſpoſable covers on the table. A little while before dinner is ſerved, what is called the *ſchælhen* is always handed round (a glaſs of brandy, or *liquer*); in many, particularly Ruſſian houſes, a kind of luncheon is taken, conſiſting of cold, ſalted, ſmoked, and pickled articles; they are placed on a ſide-board, and every one takes of them as he ſaunters about the room before dinner, to whet the appetite, and fill up the interval till ſummoned to table. The ordinary liquor at dinner is wine: without which no company; and the exceſs in it is as common here as in the countries where it grows. In many good houſes only one ſort is put on the table; here and there, where the faſhionable ſtyle is adopted, toward the end of the repaſt ſome finer wines are ſerved. Porter and Engliſh ale are likewiſe in almoſt general uſe; mead and home-made wines are leſs common, and only to be ſeen at the Ruſſian tables.

OFFERINGS AT THE SHRINE OF ST. DAVID.

IN the year 1085, king William entered Wales, and marched after the manner of pilgrimage as far as St. David's, where he offered and paid his devotion to the ſhrine of that celebrated ſaint. In 1171 king Henry II came and paid the ſame homage; he was afterward entertained by the biſhop. November 26th, 1284, king Edward I, and his queen Eleanor, came here for the ſame purpoſe, where pilgrims of all deſcriptions viſited, and made their offerings. To this receptacle the offerings made at the other chapels were brought and depoſited; where, they ſay, it was divided every Saturday among the canons and prieſts: and tradition ſays, that ſo great was the offering-money, that it uſed to be divided by diſhfuls; the quantity not allowing them leiſure to count it. That the devotion of this church was very great in the popiſh times is certain; and how meritorious they accounted it, appears by this old verſe:

'Roma ſemel quantum, bis dat Menevia tantum.'

'It was eſteemed as meritorious to viſit St. David's twice, as to viſit Rome once.'

Which has been anſwered thus:

'Mercedem ſimilem reddit uterque locus.'

'It is as meritorious to viſit one, as the other.'

Tradition repeats another phraſe,

'Every one muſt go once to St. David's, dead or alive.'

THE GLEANER.

NUMBER XXXVIII.

From whom ſhould Peace ſincerer vows receive
Than from thoſe arts which by her preſence live?
Far from the noiſe of arms, in cells and ſhades,
The ſons of Science wait th' inſpiring maids:
Yet not inglorious; if the cloiſter'd ſage
Enrich the moral, or hiſtoric page,
The hero's acts from dark oblivion ſave,
Or frame the precepts which make heroes brave.

WHITEHEAD.

SINCE my laſt the public may have been ſaid to have acquired a new ſet of ideas. After nurturing for more than eight years, the ſentiments and animoſities peculiar to a ſtate of warfare, they are ſuddenly ſurpriſed by an order (if I may ſo term it) to purge their minds from all angry paſſions, and adopt the feelings and language, and true ſpirit of forgiveneſs, to beat their ſwords into ploughſhares and their ſpears into pruning-hooks, and to adopt all the charities and forbearances, which may render peace ſolid and permanent.

How well the announciation of the great event has been conducted, my readers need not to be informed. Conducted as the negociation has been in profound ſilence, and impenetrable ſecreſy, a ſecreſy, wonderful to tell! preſerved alike by the garrulous Frenchman and the reſerved Engliſhman, the iſſue of it, when communicated to the public, had the effect of a ſudden flaſh of lightning, a ſtroke for which none were prepared, yet which all were glad to receive, and it was not the leſs welcome that it was beyond all reaſonable hopes.

The newſpapers, thoſe *infallible* ſources of veracity, had long predicted that the negociation would end unſucceſsfully, and in this point, at leaſt, thoſe of oppoſite political principles, cordially agreed, a proof that neither knew one ſyllable of what was paſſing, and that the ſecreſy agreed upon between the two governments was preſerved inviolable. On the very day that peace was announced, every one of the papers aſſured its readers that the negociation, very modeſtly termed a *humbug*, was about to end in ſmoke, and that parliament was to be ſummoned to vote more money to carry on the war, with an enemy that would liſten to no terms. Scarcely had the breakfaſt tables diſcuſſed this confirmation of the general diſappointment, when the important intelligence of peace was announced in a manner that inſtantly diſpelled all doubt and ſuſpicion, and diffuſed a ſatisfaction over the public mind, greater and more heartfelt than perhaps was every experienced on any ſimilar occaſion.

It is not within the Gleaner's province to conſider events politically, and would not have commenced this paper with a detail like the above, if in common with the reſt of his majeſty's ſubjects, he did not feel a perſonal intereſt in the return of a ſtate of peace, ſo favourable, as his motto intimates, to the cauſe of literature. Merely, however, as an obſerver of human paſſions and feelings, the contents of this paper may be allowed to be within his province in ſome degree, and it was with no ſmall pleaſure, that in his perambulations on the happy day, emphatically called *Good Friday*, he had occaſion to witneſs the general joy, vented in language at once grateful and unanimous. With the terms of peace, politically conſidered, he

wiſhes not to interfere. They will be diſcuſſed hereafter in another place, and by perſons better qualified by their ſtations to decide; but he may be permitted to ſay, that one who is an enemy to war unleſs on the moſt urgent neceſſity, will not be faſtidious about terms, if an opportunity preſents itſelf for reconciliation.

My buſineſs, however, on the memorable Friday, was to attend to what may be termed *Firſt Impreſſions*, and theſe in my different walks, preſented ſome ſingular ſcenes. I began, as reſpect for ſuch gentlemen required, with that ſcene of noiſy negociation, and obſtreperous buſineſs, the ſtock-exchange—a ſcene, indeed, that would have required the pen of a Hogarth, to convey even a faint idea. The parties, when I ſaw them, had not recovered the violence of the ſhock. They reminded me of a man who had received a violent blow, which ſtunned him, and had not recovered his ſenſes, ſo as to be able to diſcover who he was, where he was, how he came there, or who ſtruck him! Broken ſentences, and half queſtions only could be heard, and many ſpeaking at a time, nothing was anſwered and nothing diſcuſſed. Aſtoniſhment however was generally viſible, but not uniform in its effects; ſome looked pale, and ſome were flushed with joy. The reaſon of thoſe differences my readers may eaſily gueſs; according to the vulgar phraſe, ſome were in the *wrong box*, who the day before fancied they were in the right. Some were hurt in their pockets, and others only in their pride. Some had their bargains rendered unſucceſsful, while others had to lament that their conjectures were diſappointed, and that though they might not loſe much money, their character for ſagacity might be called in queſtion. Surprize, however, was the prevailing appearance, expreſſed in ejaculations of—'Amazing!—did you ever hear the like?—I can ſcarce believe it now?—Well, never was any thing like it—So ſecret too—Not a word, even laſt night—the grandeſt ſtroke—prodigious—aſtoniſhing—miraculous—never ſuſpected ſuch a thing—never dreamt of it—could not believe it till I ſaw the Gazette—beats every thing I ever heard—glorious news though, *if one had had but a glimpſe yeſterday.*'

Let miniſters of ſtate, however, take what credit they pleaſe to themſelves on the ſcore of ſecreſy, there will always be ſome to whom nothing is ſecret. In the courſe of my perambulations, I met with a few who were not *deceived*, as they ſaid—No—they had *always ſaid* how things would end—they had *long ſuſpected* peace was at the bottom of all this—ſomething put it into their heads, a *good while ago*—nay, they appealed to their friends, whether a week, or a fortnight, or a month ago, they had not poſitively ſaid how matters would end, and although their friends unfortunately could not recollect any ſuch predictions, they took full credit for them, and endeavoured to look wiſer than the reſt of the world. Such ſpecimens of *ex poſt facto* wiſdom are not uncommon. If a man goes into the wheel of prophecy with twenty conjectures, and only one of them turns up *a truth*, he does not care how much he has loſt by the other. Yet I muſt ſay, for the modeſty of my fellow-ſubjects, that I met with much fewer of thoſe pretenders to inſight on this, than on any other occaſion within my remembrance, and I am therefore ſtrongly inclined to think that notwithſtanding their pretenſions, and anxious endeavours to recollect ſomething in favour of their ſagacity, they were at bottom as much *taken in* as the reſt of the world.

As I proceeded weſtward, I beheld a ſcene of joy and ſatisfaction more pure and unmixed: the people in the ſtreets every where congratulating one another, by a cordial ſhake of the hand, and unfeigned expreſſions of happineſs, as if each had that day received an advantage peculiar to himſelf. They ſeemed, too, if fancy did not betray me, to walk with a more

firm ſtep, erect mien, and air of ſecurity. It was no diminution of their courage, that after having braved ſo many dangers, they ſhould appear to participate the conſciouſneſs of ſafety. It was not the ſafety of the coward who flies, and hides himſelf, but of thoſe who are happy that the means of ſecurity, which have long been unavailingly employed, are at length crowned with ſucceſs.

Theſe mutual congratulations might be ſeen in every ſtreet, and in every houſe. *Parents*, a very numerous claſs, had the additional ſatisfaction of reflecting, that the children whom war had ſpared, would now return ſafe and be preſerved to them for many years. Yet I muſt not conceal the mixed feelings of one good old lady, who at firſt rejoiced in the idea of her ſon's preſervation, her darling ſon, the ſtaff and ſupport of her old age. Nothing could exceed her gratitude, and the warmth of her expreſſions; it was to her a joyful day, and ſhe entertained a little party with ſomewhat more than cheerful hoſpitality; yet on a ſudden became rather thoughtful; her joy ſeemed to have received a ſudden check; and this diffuſing itſelf to the company, the glaſs began to circulate with leſs rapidity. I was at a loſs to conjecture the cauſe of this ſudden, and apparently unſeaſonable change, until her brother, an old humouriſt, whiſpered to me—'Depend upon it, the old lady has ſeen the *ghoſt* of a *half-pay* officer!'

In ſome families, I am obliged to ſay, that this news, while it diffuſed general joy, threatened to be attended with conſequences that were not altogether agreeable. Not being able, at firſt ſight, to perceive any difference between *peace* and *plenty*, ſchemes of expence began to be ſuggeſted, which would have appeared with more propriety at a future period. Some, notwithſtanding the lateneſs of the ſeaſon, began to think that a trip to Brighton or Margate, would *now* be perfectly reaſonable. Some claimed promiſes of conſiderable value, which had been made long ago, and were to be fulfilled, as ſoon as peace came. Of theſe promiſes, one regarded a larger houſe, another a ſuit of lace, and a third, the addition of a carriage. Theſe claims, however, I could eaſily perceive, were put in at a time when it was much eaſier to renew the promiſe, than comply with the demand, and in my official capacity of cenſor-general, I took upon me to ſuggeſt to ſeveral importunate young folks, who were bringing in ſuch *bills* for *payment*, that I thought they ought to conſider that as no day was ſpecified for payment, they ought to give their parents *time*; that the peace had come ſo ſuddenly as to afford no perſon a moment's leiſure for preparation, and that after a war, a nation was in the ſituation of an individual, after an illneſs. The fever may be gone, and the dangerous ſymptoms diſappear, but the patient muſt have time to recover his ſtrength, before it would be reaſonable to expect him to act as a healthy perſon. In the mean time, there was every reaſon to think that their parents would *honour* their *promiſes*, as there could be no doubt of their inclination; their hearts were at preſent open, and ſo would their purſes, when it became worth while to open them. Already in the courſe of the day, we had ſeen wonders; the miſer had been liberal, and the temperate had drawn a cork. There was no ſaying where all this might end, but in the mean time, it would be more prudent, all circumſtances conſidered, to withdraw the extenſive claims aforeſaid, and give time to prepare for them gradually.—I am hopeful my remonſtance has had ſome effect, although I have ſince ſeen how extremely difficult it is for ſome of the claimants to conſider peace in any other light than as a charming ſomething that makes every man rich.

And this, in a certain degree, will unqueſtionably be the conſequence. It is no ſmall boaſt that the ſpirit and enterprize of this country, have ever

riſen ſuperior to her misfortunes; and many of my readers may remember how ſoon ſhe recovered from the loſſes of the war, termed the American, in contradiction to the croakings of the diſaffected. There is a ſpirit of enterprize in Engliſh merchants, which ſurmounts every difficulty, backed as it is by their *credit*, or that character which they every where enjoy for integrity and punctuality. We may find in other nations, men of ingenuity, and we may ſuſpect that a nation like the French may rival us in trade; but let it be remembered that we have the advantage of two centuries of unſullied character, to oppoſe againſt the ingenuity of a people diſorganized in government, and who for a long time, at leaſt, will lie under the ſuſpicion of revolutionary changes, which deſtroy the credit of a commercial people. This at leaſt may be affirmed, although I ſhould be ſorry to puſh the argument farther, or revive animoſities, which both nations have agreed to bury.

Britain is of all nations the moſt qualified to become great, and opulent during peace.

Th' Almighty hand, which firſt her ſhores ſecur'd
With rolling oceans, and with rocks immur'd,
Which ſpread her plains, and bade her flocks increaſe,
Deſigned Britannia for the land of peace:
Where Commerce only ſhould exert her ſway,
And muſing Science trim th' unfading bay.

The character of the people, too, is favourable to the arts of peace. It is neither ſanguinary nor ambitious. The patience with which the lower claſſes have ſuffered, the unavoidable privation of their comforts of late, ſhows how eaſily they may be ſatisfied; and although among the upper claſſes, we find inſtances of men who have fallen a ſacrifice to an unbounded ſpirit of avarice, yet in their ſchemes, they have for a time promoted a general welfare, by giving bread to thoſe who could not be injured by their failure. But what is with me the firſt conſideration, and the trueſt cauſe of ſatisfaction, is the moral character of the people, ſuperior, I think, to that of any people we are acquainted with; religious principle has not loſt ground among us, although at one time, the moſt artful endeavours were made to eradicate every thing of the kind, but which happily had little other effect than to incite individuals and bodies of men to diffuſe religious and moral knowledge more widely among thoſe claſſes where, from want of inſtruction, infidelity was more likely to be ſucceſsful.

It becomes us all, however, whatever our ſentiments may be on this great occaſion, as to the rights of nations, to conſider that war, whoever may be the enemy, is a ſcourge inflicted by the Almighty. As ſuch we are taught to acknowledge it in our public acts of devotion, and as ſuch we ought to remember it in every duty of life. If we have ſuffered much in this war, now terminated, let us remember at whoſe hand we have received the chaſtiſement, and live in ſuch obedience to his precepts, in ſuch conformity to his will, and with ſuch an eye to his diſpenſations, that he may be inclined to haſten the time, when 'nation ſhall not lift up ſword againſt nation, neither ſhall they learn war any more.'

DOWNING, THE SEAT OF THE LATE MR. PENNANT.

DOWNING, in the pariſh of Whiteford, near Holywell, beautifully ſituate among woods, but principally known to the world as the ſeat of the late Thomas Pennant, eſq. to whoſe indefatigable reſearches the natural hiſtory and topography of Great Britain is under many obligations. Downing is alſo the principal houſe in the townſhip, and built about the year

The Green Woodpecker.

1627; but the preſent name is evidently a corruption of Eden-Owain, or the township in which it ſtands. The houſe was founded by John Pennant, of Bychton, who, marrying a rich heireſs of this place, erected an elegant manſion, with ſtone, brought from a dingle called Nant-y-bi, oppoſite the modern edifice. The preſent ſtructure is erected in the form of a Roman H; a mode of architecture common in Wales at that period, with this ancient and pious motto on the front: '*Heb Dduw heb ddim, a duw a digon*,' ſignifying, without God there is nothing: with God enough. The grounds are very extenſive, with walks along fine ſwelling lands beneath the ſhady depth of glens, or through the contracted meads which meander quite to the ſhore; with delightful views toward the hills, and the ancient Pharos on Garreg. Over the channel of the Dee are the Hilbree Iſles, on one of which are ſome remains of a cell of Benedictines; but the ſea view is ſtill more animated, with the ſight of numerous fleets entering and ſailing out of the port of Liverpool. Below the houſe are the ruins of the abbey of Malandina, which add conſiderable beauty to the view.

The houſe, much improved by Mr. Pennant at different times, conſiſts of a hall and library, with a large parlour adjoining, and a ſmoking-room moſt antiquely furniſhed with ancient carvings, and the horns of all the European beaſts of chaſe. Above ſtairs is an elegant drawing room and a tea-room.

The library, which, if minutely deſcribed, would fill a handſome volume of itſelf, contains a numerous and choice collection of books, chiefly of hiſtory, and many ſcarce editions of the claſſics, with a great collection of MSS. being ſolely the labour and induſtry of the late Thomas Pennant, eſq. among which are his MS. volumes of 'The Outlines of the Globe,' in twenty-two volumes folio, on which uncommon expence has been beſtowed, in tranſcribing, ornaments, and illuminations. In the hall are ſome very good pictures by Peter Paillou, an inimitable painter of animals and birds: the parlour is alſo filled with portraits and paintings, moſtly reduced from originals by the ingenious Moſes Griffith, an untaught genius of North Wales, who accompanied Mr. Pennant in moſt of his tours through England, Scotland, and Wales.

The eſtate alſo abounds with coal-works, as do the environs with lead-mines, particularly one hill, on which is a cavern, ſuppoſed to be made by the Romans when they worked theſe and the neighbouring mines.

NATURAL HISTORY OF THE GREEN WOODPECKER.

With a coloured Engraving of that beautiful BIRD.

THIS ſpecies of the Picus, or Woodpecker, is very well known in Britain, and is the largeſt of the Britiſh birds, being thirteen inches in length: its bill is two inches long, of a triangular ſhape, and of a dark horn colour; the outer circle of the eye is white, ſurrounding another of red; top of the head is of a bright crimſon, which extends down the hinder part of the neck, ending in a point behind; the eye is ſurrounded by a black ſpace: and from each corner of the bill there is a crimſon ſtreak pointing downwards; the back and wing coverts are of an olive green; the rump yellow; the quill feathers are duſky, barred on the outer web with black and white; the baſtard wing is ſpotted with white; the ſides of the head and all the under parts of the body are white, ſlightly tinged with green; the tail is marked with bars like the wings; the legs are greeniſh. The female differs from the male, in not having the red mark from the corner of the mouth.

Theſe birds feed entirely on inſects;

and their principal action is that of climbing up and down the bodies or boughs of trees: for the firſt purpoſe they are provided with a long ſlender tongue, armed with a ſharp bony end barbed on each ſide, which by the means of a curious apparatus of muſcles they can exert at pleaſure, darting it to a great length into the cliſts of the bark, transfixing and drawing out the inſects that lurk there.

They make their neſts in the hollows of trees: in order therefore to force their way to thoſe cavities, their bills are formed ſtrong, very hard, and wedge-like at the end. Dr. Derham obſerves, that a neat ridge runs along the top, as if an artiſt had deſigned it for ſtrength and beauty. Yet it has not power to penetrate a ſound tree; their perforation of any tree is a warning to the owner, to thrown it down. Their legs are ſhort, but ſtrong; their thighs very muſcular; their toes diſpoſed two backward, two forward: the feathers of the tail are very ſtiff, ſharp-pointed; and bending downward. The three firſt circumſtances do admirably concur, to enable them to run up and down the ſides of trees with great ſecurity; and the ſtrength of the tail ſupports them firmly, when they continue long in one place, either where they find plenty of food, or while they are forming an acceſs to the interior part of the timber. This form of the tail makes their flight very awkward, as it inclines their body down, and forces them to fly with ſhort and frequent jerks, when they would aſcend or even keep in a line. This ſpecies feeds oftener on the ground, than any other of the genus: all of them make their neſts in the hollows of trees; and lay five or ſix eggs, of a beautiful ſemi-tranſparent white. Willoughby ſays, that the female lays five or ſix eggs, which Pennant alſo obſerves, adding that they are of the above colour.

'Theſe birds,' he ſays, 'ſometimes build in a hollow aſp or other tree, fifteen or twenty feet from the ground. The male and female take it by turns, to bore through the living part of the wood, till they come to the rotten part, wherein after being hollowed out to a proper depth, they lay their eggs, which are generally five, and ſometimes ſix in number, greeniſh, with ſmall black ſpots. The young ones climb up and down the trees before they can fly. It is worthy of remark to obſerve with what nicety the holes of the woodpecker are made, as perfectly round as if made by the aſſiſtance of a pair of compaſſes. Nuthatches, ſtarlings, and bats, frequently build in theſe holes when deſerted.

'Both Friſch and Klein miſtake in ſaying that the females have not the red crown, for even the young ones in the neſt have the appearance of it: and I have had them brought to me when they could ſcarcely fly, when the red was mixed with brown; but they do not become of a full red till after the firſt moult. They are ſaid to be fond of bees in winter, making great havock among them. Salerne obſerves, that they are found in the markets in Italy, at Bologna; but this is not extraordinary, for the Italians eat all ſmall birds almoſt without exception.

'In ſir A. Lever's muſeum, there is a variety of this bird, of a ſtraw-colour throughout, except the crown, which is faintly marked with red.'

EGYPT.

THE preſent moment renders every authentic information on this ſubject of the higheſt importance: the public are therefore much indebted to Mr. Baldwin, our late conſul-general in Egypt, for his Political and Hiſtorical Recollections relative to that country. They appear to be written by one who has long had a view of the effect which the weakneſs of the Turkiſh empire muſt have toward its own diſſolution; and who has been long en-

gaged in planning and executing meaſures by which his own country may reap the greateſt and moſt ſolid advantages. To him we are indebted for the circumſtance that the French have been twice expelled from India in leſs than three months after a declaration of war: events of which Mr. Baldwin may with great reaſon, and we think with great virtue, ſpeak exultingly. His exertions to eſtabliſh a direct commerce from England to Egypt, are characteriſtic of the trueſt patriotiſm; and by his means 'In 1776, 1777, and 1778, ſhips were arriving at Alexandria from England, and at Suez from India, at the ſame time. We compoſed our bowl, (ſays he) of the Ganges, the Thames, and the Nile, and from the top of the Pyramid drank proſperity to England.'

Theſe Recollections are contained in a ſmall octavo volume: the Preface is animated and intereſting, and will, (if any thing can) convince even the loudeſt oppoſers of miniſtry, how abſolutely neceſſary it was to the ſalvation of their country, that Egypt ſhould be ſnatched from the dominion of France; and how incalculable has been the merit of the brave defenders of Acre; and the glorious conquerors of Cairo and Alexandria.—'I conſider Egypt,' ſays this ſpirited writer, 'as conquered by the arms of England. I have attempted to do juſtice to the brave ſoldiers who conquered it. It is a queſtion now, whether we ſhould keep it? That we ſhould keep it appears to me to be a matter of neceſſity: that we ought to keep it, is to be ſeen in its worth; in its importance to the commerce; and in that, to all the intereſts of the ſtate.'

Some circumſtances related in this Preface will produce reflections of the deepeſt regret, in all thoſe who wiſh that worth and talents, when employed in the ſervice of their country, ſhould ever meet the moſt liberal reward and encouragement.—But conſcious virtue, and an internal ſenſe of having performed his duty, is, to the wiſe and good man, a greater reward than it is in the power of kings or miniſters to beſtow.

So much of late has been written on Egypt, that it may be thought the ſubject is exhauſted. Far from it: Mr. Baldwin has choſen new ground: he has not traverſed the myſtic ſhores of Mizraim as an antiquary, nor waſted his time in tracing the Nile to its ſource, nor yet in meaſuring thoſe 'Monuments of human power for no human purpoſe,'—the Pyramids. He has directed his purſuits to objects worthy the attention of the ſtateſman and the merchant; and while the French *Sçavans* were anxious to ſwell libraries with their productions, he was not leſs laudably employed in pointing out thoſe particulars, which, if attended to, would fill our warehouſes, and ſcatter plenty over our land.

The work commences with 'Speculations on the Situation and Reſources of Egypt,' drawn up by the author at the expreſs deſire of government, in the year 1785, in conſequence of which, he was appointed conſul-general in Egypt.—They are worthy the moſt ſerious attention of all political readers at the preſent criſis.

The laſt piece in this ſmall, but valuable volume, is the following letter, the nature of which we conceive to be ſo intereſting, as to deſerve the moſt general circulation, and have therefore thought it our duty to give it our readers without delay.

LETTER to the right hon. HENRY DUNDAS, &c. &c.

Sir,

IN yielding to the general wiſh of my friends to be informed of the hiſtory, as far as I am able to inform them, of the late invaſion of Egypt, and of the circumſtances which led to it, and which are likely to ariſe out of it; I have not heſitated to recur to papers, and memorials which were written at your requeſt, and conſequently owe their exiſtence to your conſideration and regard for me. I

do not know if my doing it without your previous permiſſion may ſtand in need of an apology; I would not have done it, if I had thought ſo myſelf, but I will give for my apology, if I muſt give an apology, my motive; and it is, 'That our country may know that ſuch ſimple men as myſelf, and their opinions, are not diſregarded by miniſters when they treat of events, however remote they may ſeem to be in proſpect, if they appear to have any veriſimilitude in argument, or foundation in fact.' And that you, ſir, have done me the honour to attend to theſe opinions, particularly when the world was diſpoſed to laugh at them; and have availed of them, as the events have proved, to the honour and advantage of our country.

But, ſir, the political cauldron is compounding of great events. More is foreboding: more 'hubble bubble;' more 'toil and trouble.' It would require almoſt magical penetration to conceive it.

Will you allow me, ſir, to take up the thread of my diſcourſe from the letter I had begun, but could not ſend from Naples; and to explain what I meant to ſay when I aſſerted that Bonaparte had touched upon the ſubverſion of the Turkiſh empire, and had only failed of it when he failed in his deſign upon Acri.

All Syria was ſuſpended by the ſiege of Acri. The mountains of Caſtravan, of Lebanon, of Caſſius, were never completely ſubjugated by the Turk. The inhabitants are generally Maronita Chriſtians. There is a nation called Meteveli, and another of Durzis. They are all of independent turn of mind: are all armed from the age of boys, and are governed by their own Emirs, or Sheicks, or Princes. I have been among them, and was acquainted with the Emir Uſeff, and Emir Monſur, and Sheick Ali Jamblat, and many others. They are all warriors, loving athletic exerciſes. They may be numbered at one hundred thouſand fighting men.

Sir Sydney Smith appears to have known their importance. He correſponded with the chiefs of theſe men. They had been perſuaded by Bonaparte; and ſir Sydney Smith reclaimed them from the courſe and purpoſe he had engaged them to adopt. Sir Sydney Smith encouraged them by his conduct. It was the conduct of a man inſpired. People ſpeak of the defence of Acri as of ſomething prodigious: It *was* prodigious! The Alexander of the day, with his army of conquerors, was made heart-ſick before Acri, by a handful of Britons. Acri, an atom before ſuch a conqueror.

It is very true: and very fortunate for the world that he was ſtopped; for if he had conquered Acri, all Syria would have ſubmitted at the ſame inſtant of time. The mountains would have declared for him, and he would have diſpoſed of the arms, and of the reputation of his conqueſts, to ſubvert the Turkiſh empire.

What would have been his next meaſure? His next meaſure would have been to conquer Aſia Minor. You ſee him, ſir, by the conqueſt of Syria, at the defiles of Taurus.

I know this country too. I know it for more than thirty years to have been in a ſtate of revolt. It is governed by independent agas, or chiefs of diſtricts; revolted from oppreſſion; every man aſſerting and maintaining his own; giving property and freedom, and the energies of freedom to his adherents; and defending his eſtates with reſolution and effect. In the exigencies of war they have made common cauſe with the ſtate; they have contributed a quota of men to the war; but upon no account have they ſuffered paſhas, or officers of authority, to come among them to govern. They have no collective force; no concert, no co-operation, as to their general intereſt. If they had been threatened by the whole maſs of power from Syria, what could they have done?

They could have done nothing.

Bonaparte would have ſoftened their deſcent by a proclamation. He would have ſent to them individually. 'You ſee that I have conquered Egypt and Syria, and that nothing can reſiſt my arms. I am at your door. I am marching into Aſia Minor. I am marching to Conſtantinople. If you will live in your independency, I promiſe to maintain you in your independency, in your religion, and in your eſtates. If you think that you can moleſt me in my progreſs; you will feel the weight of my deſolating ſword.'

And they would have ſubmitted; and Bonaparte would have marched triumphant to the boundary of Aſia; to the confine of Europe. He would hence have looked down upon Conſtantinople.

I know, ſir, that you have already ſtarted at the dilemma of the Ottoman throne.—The natural retreat of the Turk, Aſia Minor, cut off.—At his back an inveterate rebellion conducted by a deſperate chief.—All around him defection, defection, defection.—A priſoner in his capital at the mercy of No mercy! Need I proceed to the end?

Bonaparte ſaw all this; and from the mirrour of his ambition, already ſaw himſelf reflected Arbiter of Turkey. He ſaw the eagle blenching at his approach. What could then have ſtopt him? But luckily for the world, Acri ſtopt him. But Acri threw the monſter on his back; but Acri expoſed this chimera to the world. He turned about, but did not turn from his deſign. He carried it boiling in his ſtomach to France. He ſaw it practicable from another direction. He knew the weakneſs of mankind. He had ſkill and craft enough to abuſe it. This is the era of revolutions, he ſaid to his army upon his return, and the army caught it;—they ſwore to ſupport him. They made him arbiter of their fate.

It is not an ordinary ſtory of an ordinary mind, than can break at once through a cloud of diſgrace, into ſuch a ſudden blaze of confidence and power; for the defeat at Acri was no inconſiderable defeat; for the deſertion of his companions of arms in the Eaſt, was not that commendable act which ſhould recommend him to a further conceſſion of confidence and power. It was the diſmemberment of Turkey; it was the faſcinating effects of ſuch a ſcheme upon the powers of Europe, that recommended him; and indeed,

What a card to play off to avarice: what a card to play off to ambition! Do we want more to account for the ſudden reverſe of fortune in Italy? Three-and-twenty fortreſſes ſurrendered by the ſame hand, that after ſo much waſte of blood and treaſure conquered them!

So far advanced as this in his project, I did believe that he would have left England to her expedition to Egypt. I did believe, that he would have deduced the ſecurity of his Egyptian conqueſt, whether maſtered by the Engliſh, or not, among the neceſſary conſequences of his expedition to Turkey. I did believe that he would have been ſenſible of the inſurmountable difficulty of ſuccouring Alexandria with a fleet; and that Gantheaume would have been employed to tranſport forces into Greece; I did believe all this, and ſaid it; becauſe I am apt to believe in the infallibility of theſe great men. This was, obviouſly to me, the game he ought to have played. It was tempting, it was open, it promiſed ſucceſs; but he was loſt in the danger of Egypt. He perſiſted in trying to ſave Egypt: and did not know that he was loſing his time.

England had conquered Egypt before I left it; ſhe had only to avail of the advantage ſhe had gained. Gantheaume has been diſappointed. The Republicans have not conquered Turkey: the moment, perhaps, is loſt: the Northern Confederacy muſt be otherwiſe diſpoſed. — But the Greeks, he may ſay, are revolted in their hearts; but all Servia is in rebellion; but the Turkiſh power is a phantom. But I will attempt it yet.

Indeed, the flood-gates of dominion ſeem every where to be wrenched: the waters are out: the land-marks are removed. God alone can tell when this afflicting ſpirit may ſubſide.

The tendency of diſorder is neceſſarily to diſſolution; and a day will come when order will reſume its reign.

I do not mean to be *particular*, when I ſpeak of the tendency of diſorder. I mean to awaken our policy to the general diſorder of Europe. I think that France may not, at this time, find it ſo eaſy a taſk to accompliſh her deſigns upon Turkey, but I think alſo that nothing can long protract the fall of that decaying empire.

Upon this principle we cannot part with Egypt at any rate. To whom ſhould we part with it? If there were ſufficient reaſon to juſtify our ſending an army into Egypt to expel the French, the ſame reaſon muſt exiſt for keeping them out. Then, how would you keep them out? Would you put the Turk in poſſeſſion of it again? They cannot keep the French out. They could not keep them out before; and when the French were in, could they drive them out? Are arguments wanting to ſubſtantiate this? Is the Turk more powerful than he was?

But England has profeſſed to recover Egypt for the Turk: and ſhall England wreſt Egypt from the French, to rob it from the Turk? Would this be acting the part of a faithful ally? But England did not ſend her armies to Egypt out of compliment to the Turk. England had an intereſt in wreſting Egypt from the French; an intereſt, equivalent to the magnitude of the undertaking: and ſhall ſhe abandon this meaſure of ſafety to her intereſt before ſhe is ſure to have accompliſhed the intent of it? If the Turk could have kept the French out, there would have been no want of the armies of England to drive them out. The Turk attempted with the whole force of his empire to drive them out; but the world is informed how miſerably he was defeated. The Turk therefore is inadequate in power. Shall England then reſtore it to the Turk, who cannot by himſelf defend it? Shall England live expoſed to the ſame danger again? Then what is to be done?

England ſhould be ever faithful to her principles. Faithful to her allies. England muſt ſay to the Turk, you ſhall have your province. We will defend it for you. You ſhall have your tribute, as the Mameluks were engaged to pay it. Did the Mameluk ever remit to you any tribute? Could you force even the Mameluk to pay to you his tribute? Then England will anſwer that your tribute ſhall be paid. Then what will the conſequences be to England?

I have ſaid, ſir, in my ſpeculations on Egypt, that ſhe annually ſent a thouſand ſhips abroad with her ſuperfluous productions. To enter into a detail of this commerce would ſurpaſs the bounds of a letter: but it may be to your ſatisfaction to know, that in rice, and grain, and coffee, and ſenna, and flax, and hemp, ſal ammoniac, myrrh, and aloes; and gums of all kinds; and ivory, ſafflower, hides, indigo, ſugar, and an infinite variety of articles uſeful to our conſumption and manufacture; a thouſand cargoes may eaſily be compoſed, and annually imported from Egypt into England. Do I ſay a thouſand ſhips? Yes! A thouſand ſhips, and I have left out of my account the lake Natron: producing a ſalt, anſwering all the purpoſes of ſoda in bleaching, and in making of ſoap, equal to a thouſand cargoes more, if required. All this will pre-ſuppoſe a want of European manufacture in an adequate proportion. Cloth, and ſhalloons, and Manchester goods, and baize, and blankets, and ſhawls: cutlery, iron ware, watches, lead, tin, tin plates, tobacco, cochineal, and arms: gunpowder, and of every aſſortment that can be named. This I can ſpeak of, from my experience and obſervation.

This is what has been done. But if Egypt was protected from the tyranny which has oppreſſed it; if the peaſant could enjoy the fruit of his labour; if he had not to fear the diſplay of his means; his means would enable him, and his ſpirit would prompt him, to indulge himſelf a little more in the conveniences and elegances of life. If Egypt could be improved, in any proportion to its ſuſceptibility of improvement, I would not heſitate to ſay, that we might reckon upon a circulation of two thouſand ſhips of commerce in one year from Egypt to the ports of England. Do we forget what Egypt was! I have ſeen what it is, ſir! The French have ſeen it, and know its worth. If it can be held to England; ſhe may talk of jewels in her crown, but a brighter than this, ſhe will not poſſeſs.

To pretend to ſay, in the fluctuating ſtate of power in Europe at preſent, who ſhall fall, and who ſhall riſe; who ſhall be deſpoiled, and who ſhall divide the ſpoil; is not the purpoſe of my preſent addreſs. A great diſorder is near at hand. Thoſe will fare beſt, who have beſt deſerved. In this reflection, I feel moſt comfortable for honeſt England.

G. BALDWIN.

London, Sept. 17, 1801.

The following extracts from the ſame work will be found intereſting by our readers, as containing more authentic information than can be expected from the French accounts.

The Situation of Egypt relative to other Parts of the Globe.

Egypt communicates with the coaſts of Syria, Caramania, Natolia, and the coaſts of the Black Sea; with the coaſts of Greece, of Italy, and France; with the coaſts of Spain, the northern coaſt of Africa, and all the iſlands of the Mediterranean, in a ſpace of twenty days: it communicates with the coaſts of Arabia Felix, of the gulphs of Perſia and Bengal, the eaſtern coaſts of Africa, Madagaſcar, and the Cape of Good Hope, in forty days; with the coaſts of Sumatra, Java, Japan, and China; the Philippines, the coaſts of Brazil, and great part of America; with all the interior parts of Aſia, Africa, and Europe, in ninety days: it approaches England to her poſſeſſions in the Eaſt Indies, by a communication of ſixty days; and in one hundred days may ſend her tidings to the fartheſt corners of the earth.

Theſe things are not merely poſſible, but from natural cauſes, providentially and periodically revolving, often practicable and certain.

Commerce of Egypt.

Having enumerated with what wonderful celerity Egypt, by reaſon of its favoured poſition, can communicate with every other country of the globe, I may reaſonably take this advantage likewiſe to the account of its commerce; for what advantages do not derive to commerce from brevity and expedition? But Egypt has other advantages as important as theſe; ſhe has the ſame facility of intercourſe internally, and can convey her produce and importations to every town and village in the country, with equal promptitude and eaſe. The Nile provides for this; but Egypt has a more eſſential obligation to the Nile.

Productions and Commercial Reſources.

Were it needful, I would enter into a detail of the various productions of Egypt; but ſufficient for the preſent purpoſe may be to aver, from obſervation of my own, that having ſupplied her natural wants, ſhe can ſend annually a thouſand ſhips abroad with her ſuperfluous productions.

She is the magazine of all the trade of Yemen; the mart for all the coffee and rich gums of that proud territory; ſhe is the magazine to all the interior parts of Africa, producing gold duſt, ivory, ſenna, drugs: ſhe is the reſort of all the traders of the world; it ſeems a common centre of univerſal commerce: the coin of all the world is current here.

Importance of the Situation of Egypt to England, ſimply in ſubſervience to her Political and Commercial Correſpondence with India.

A communication with India by the Red Sea may be eſtabliſhed, which, in its conſequences, will have this operation: it will create a call for the manufactures of Bengal principally, which will contribute to the proſperity of that country. It will, in exchange, ſupply them with a large return of ſpecie, the ſinew of our importance in India. It will deduct from that of the French, by taking away the foundation of their trade. It will afford a channel of expeditious correſpondence, which is the ſoul of government, between England and the Eaſt Indies; and in the event of a ſudden war, may enable us to conquer our rivals, and add their poſſeſſions to our own.

That event did happen, and the eſtabliſhment I formed with theſe views, was the vehicle of our ſalvation in India; was the vehicle of our preſervation in the Weſt Indies; was the inſtrument of gaining that only equivalent we had to offer in our negociation for peace; was a circumſtance which had a conſiderſible ſhare in ſaving our national honour.

Theſe ſhould be earneſts of its future importance; but more may be ſaid. Very little, indeed, need now be added, to prove the communication by Egypt to be a neceſſary link in the chain of our connection with India. It will appear with more effect, in a view of the importance of this ſituation to France. I foreſee, that the topic is replete with matter of arduous ſpeculation.

Importance of Egypt to France.

Before the fate of America was decided, I took into my head to argue thus—1780; but the argument was not without extraneous provocation.

'Should France be ſenſible of the advantage of adding Egypt to her dominions, and were tempted to try the conqueſt of it; *ſuppoſing her triumphant in the preſent conteſt upon the ſea*; what power on earth could prevent her deſigns?'

But the queſtion being yet doubtful as to its iſſue, this might be ſaid, 'Were France to make the beſt uſe of her preſent power, her plan would be to leave America to her fate; to preſerve her preſent naval conſideration entire; and to ſecure the neutrality of England to this more plauſible deſign. It will bear inveſtigation.'

For America, independent, may grow to be a more dangerous enemy to France than England is; firſt, from the proximity of her power to the French iſlands; and next, from the irreconcileable principles of American policy, with the known maxims of French government.

Becauſe France will ſecure, without fighting, what all her efforts have never obtained—to ſay, 'as ſtrong a fleet as England, and a colony more than adequate to all her iſlands, and all her proſpects from American connections.'

Becauſe the commercial intereſts of England and France, drawing thence to oppoſite points, may remove the ancient bone of contention.

Becauſe every conſideration conſpires in ſuch a ſyſtem to aggrandize the power, increaſe the wealth, and inſure the tranquillity of France.

The navigation is ſhort and ſafe.

The colony ſubject neither to hurricanes, ſickneſs, nor earthquake.

No rival in the way of her commercial operations.

No enemy to intercept her ſuccours, in caſe of alarm.

No need of tranſporting ſubſiſtence to her forces when there.

Were all this to be obtained, would not France take it for a doubtful cauſe? Would not England accede to it, to purchaſe her defection from America?

The idea of recovering America from an actual uncertain ſtate of the war, would have weight with England; but in contemplation of her Eaſt India poſſeſſions, and the proſ-

ſpect of danger to theſe from the growing power of America, in any future contention, ought to diſpoſe her for ſuch an accommodation. France would have nothing to fear from the reſentment of America, becauſe it muſt be the intereſt of England to deprive her of her ſtrength. The acceſſion of Egypt to France might be diſarmed of its danger to England; and nature has concurred to every other diſqualification. The independency of America, or even an unreſtricted trade, which has already been offered to them, are fraught with miſchiefs to the intereſts of England: I, rather than grant them, would vow perpetual war with France.

But this opportunity is gone; at the time I now write, America is independent. Let us revert to our text.

The importance of this ſituation to France is, I think, tranſcendently ſhewn in the reflections we have juſt read. England muſt now look with a jealous eye to the machinations of France.

Conqueſt of Egypt by France.

There is a long preliminary to be ſettled before this can be attempted with any certainty of effect. The temptation is, however, paramount to all.

When I ſaid, that the independency of America, or even an unreſtricted trade allowed to them, was pregnant with miſchiefs to England, I confeſs that I ſuſpected from the leaſt of them almoſt unavoidable perdition to our ſettlements in the Eaſt Indies. The effect of the former I conſidered to be nearer; but I looked for the ſame conſequences, more remote in the proſpect, even from the latter: I would rather have vowed perpetual war to France.

Some reaſons will be expected from me, I ſuppoſe, for this inveterate pre-election.

If the latter may be vindicated by argument, the firſt, of courſe, will ſpeak for itſelf: I ſhall only ſpeak to the latter.

Then, I ſay, an unreſtricted trade will admit the ſhips of America into all the ports in the Eaſt Indies; and this intercourſe with our ſettlements will produce the effect.

What is the ſtate of the Engliſh poſſeſſions in the Eaſt Indies?

A country almoſt equal in extent to all Europe, and richer in its natural reſources.

An army of one hundred and twenty thouſand men, well diſciplined.

A revenue badly adminiſtered, capable of defraying ſuch an army; of defraying the civil government; and ſtill of remitting millions ſterling annually to England.

At a diſtance mocking all coercion.

France and America nearer to them than England, and ever anxious to favour their defection.

With ſuch truths to revolve in minds already complaining of the arbitrary exerciſe of authority, the Americans arrive among them free, exulting, broke looſe from all reſtraints. Need any thing be added?

But I do not inſiſt upon this, as a ſole and indiſpenſable incentive: it has a portentous look, no doubt, and may come in as a cauſe, or be concomitant to the effect: I conſtruct my motive to this conqueſt upon other grounds.

I conſtruct it upon the degeneracy and degradation of the Turks; upon the weakneſs of the Egyptians; upon the common policy of empires and of ſtates; and upon its general compatibility with the views and intereſts of every European maritime ſtate encompaſſing the Mediterranean ſea.

Theſe conſiderations united, (and who ſhall ſay they have no exiſtence in fact?) The oppoſition of England, and of all who may be diſpoſed to join her, will fail in their beſt efforts to prevent it.

Muſt I ſupport my propoſitions by argument? Then I appeal to the ſtate of the Turkiſh empire; an empire diſmembered by revolt; deſpoiled of revenue; having no reſources; their military ſpirit debaſed; their fleet degraded; their power a phantom; their

government deceding under its conſtitutional defects.

And is it ſtill for me to prove that the nature of all power is to aſſert itſelf; to encroach where it can? Then appeal to the fate of Poland; appeal to America; appeal to the Crimea; appeal to Holland; appeal to the Hiſtory of the World. I believe there is an eſſential principle in the doctrine of power: it is another atmoſphere; it can know no void; it ruſhes in upon every receſs; it is dominion's tide; its cauſes float upon the paſſions and diſtempers of men.

In this view, were the powers of Auſtria and Ruſſia to preſs in upon the yielding provinces of the Turk, France, unable to oppoſe them, would embrace the alternative, and join in the ſpoil: Egypt would be the natural lot of France; and Ruſſia and Auſtria, elated and fated with the diviſion of the reſt, applying to the advantages contained in the completion of theſe events, conſpire, concert, and mutually abet the general and ſeparate intereſts of the whole.

I have before deſcribed the defenceleſs ſtate of Egypt, as to its proper reſources; and now, the protection they derived from their nominal dependence on the Porte, is loſt in the extinction of that power itſelf. Who, then, is to reſiſt the powers which may aſſail her?

If Venice is to recover a portion of her loſt commerce and eſtates; if Spain, and Genoa, and Malta, allured by the proſpect of gain to themſelves, from the conſequence of ſucceſs in theſe ſchemes, ſhould join their confederate force to the fleets of France; would England ſingly oppoſe them? Or who is to oppoſe them with any effect?

France, in poſſeſſion of Egypt, would poſſeſs the maſter-key to all the trading nations of the earth. Enlightened, as the times are, in the general arts of navigation and commerce, ſhe might make it the emporium of the world: ſhe might make it the *awe* of the Weſtern world, by the facility ſhe would command of tranſporting her forces thither, by ſurprize, in any number, and at any time; and England would hold her poſſeſſions in India at the mercy of France.

The HISTORY *of* KNOWLEDGE, LEARNING, *and* TASTE, *in* Great Britain, *during the Reign of King* CHARLES II. *Part* IV *.

[From the New Annual Regiſter, for the Year 1800.]

POLITE literature may be ſaid to have flouriſhed during this reign, and it may be conſidered as the commencement of an era which has not improperly been termed the Auguſtan age of Britiſh literature; yet it muſt be confeſſed that the public taſte was at this period ſcarcely refined; and it may be obſerved, even in this its infant ſtate, to have ſuffered no ſmall degree of corruption.

It was in the reign that there appeared a race of writers who have been termed the metaphyſical poets. They were men of learning; and to ſhow their learning was their whole endeavour: but, unluckily reſolving to ſhow it in rhyme, inſtead of writing poetry they only wrote verſes; and often ſuch verſes as ſtood the trial of the finger better than the ear; for the modulation was ſo imperfect, that they were only found to be verſes by counting the ſyllables. If the father of criticiſm has rightly denominated poetry *an imitative art*, theſe writers will, without great wrong, loſe their right to the name of poets; for they cannot be ſaid to have imitated any thing; they neither copied nature nor life—neither painted the forms of matter, nor repreſented the operations of intellect. Thoſe, however, who deny them to poets, muſt allow them to be

* See the Univerſal Magazine, vol. 107, page 341, for Part 3.

wits. If wit (or rather genius) indeed be well deſcribed by Pope, as being

'What oft is thought, but ne'er ſo well expreſs'd,

they certainly never attained, nor ever ſought it; for they endeavoured to be ſingular in their thoughts, and were careleſs of their diction. If, by a more noble and more adequate conception, that be conſidered as wit which is at once natural and new, that which though not obvious, is, upon its firſt production, acknowledged to be juſt; if it be that, which he that never found it wonders how he miſſed, to wit of this kind the metaphyſical poets rarely aſpired; their thoughts are often new, but ſeldom natural; they are not obvious, but neither are they juſt; and the reader, far from wondering that he miſſed them, wonders more frequently by what perverſeneſs of induſtry they were ever found. But wit, abſtracted from its effects on the hearer, has been more correctly and philoſophically conſidered as a kind of *diſcordia concors*—a combination of diſſimilar images, or diſcovery of occult reſemblances in things apparently unlike. Of wit, thus defined, they have more than enough; the moſt heterogeneous ideas are yoked by violence together; nature and art are ranſacked for illuſtrations, compariſons, and alluſions; their learning inſtructs, and their ſubtilty ſurpriſes; but improvement is dearly bought, and admiration ill exchanged for pleaſure. It will readily be inferred that they were not ſucceſsful in repreſenting or moving the affections: as they were wholly occupied in ſomething unexpected and ſurpriſing, they had no regard to that uniformity of ſentiment which enables us to conceive and excite the pains and pleaſures of other minds. They never inquired what they themſelves ſhould have ſaid or done on other occaſions; their only aim was to ſay what had never been ſaid before. They wrote rather as beholders than partakers of human nature, as beings looking upon good and evil impaſſive, and at leiſure; as Epicurean deities, making remarks on the actions of men, and the viciſſitudes of life, without intereſt, and without emotion. Their courtſhip was void of fondneſs, and their lamentation of ſorrow. Nor was the ſublime more within their reach than the pathetic, for they did not attempt that comprehenſion and expanſe of thought which at once fills the whole mind, and of which the firſt effect is ſudden aſtoniſhment, and the ſecond rational admiration. Sublimity is produced by aggregation, and littleneſs by diſperſion. Great thoughts are always general, and conſiſt in poſitions not limited by exceptions, and in deſcriptions not deſcending to minuteneſs. It is with great propriety that ſubtilty (which in its original import means exility of particles) is taken in its metaphorical meaning for nicety of diſtinction. Thoſe writers who lay on the watch for novelty could have little hope of greatneſs, for great things cannot have eſcaped former obſervation. Their attempts were always analytic; they broke every image into fragments; and could no more repreſent, by their ſlender conceits and laboured particularities, the proſpects of nature, than he who diffects a ſun beam with a priſm can exhibit the wide effulgence of a ſummer noon.

What they wanted however of the ſublime they ſupplied with hyperbole: their amplification had no limits; they left not only reaſon but fancy behind, and produced combinations of confuſed magnificence, which not only could not be credited, but could not be imagined. Yet great labour, directed by great abilities, is never wholly loſt: if they frequently threw away their wit upon falſe conceits, they ſometimes ſtruck out unexpected truth; if their thoughts were far-fetched, they were ſometimes worth the carriage: to write on their plan it was neceſſary to read and think; no man could be born a metaphyſical poet

r or aſſume to the dignity of a writer by deſcriptions, by traditional imagery and hereditary ſimilies.

This kind of compoſition, borrowed from Marino and his followers, had been recommended by the example of Donne, a man of very extenſive and various knowledge; and by Jonſon, whoſe manner reſembled that of Donne more in the ruggedneſs of his lines than the caſt of his ſentiments. When their reputation was high, they had undoubtedly more imitators than time has left behind. Their immediate ſucceſſors, of whom any remembrance can be ſaid to remain, were Suckling, Waller, Denham, Cowley, and Milton. Denham and Waller ſought another way to fame, by improving the harmony of our numbers. Milton tried the metaphyſical ſtyle only in his lines on Hobſon the Carrier. Cowley adopted it, and excelled his predeceſſors; having as much ſentiment, and more muſic. Suckling neither improved verſification, nor abounded in conceits. The faſhionable ſtyle remained chiefly with Cowley: Suckling could not reach, and Milton diſdained it.

Abraham Cowley, the laſt, and undoubtedly the beſt of this claſs, was born in 1618. His father dying when he was young, he was left to the care of his mother, who is repreſented as ſtruggling earneſtly to procure him a literary education; and who, as ſhe lived to the age of eighty, had her ſolicitude rewarded by ſeeing her ſon both eminent and grateful. He was admitted into Weſtminſter ſchool, and ſoon diſtinguiſhed there, affording ſuch early proofs, not only of acquired knowledge but comprehenſion of things, as to more tardy minds ſeems ſcarcely credible. A volume of poems was printed in his thirteenth year, containing the Hiſtory of Pyramus and Thiſbe, written when ten years old, and Conſtantine and Philitus, written two years after.

He was removed to Cambridge in 1636, where he continued his ſtudies with great intenſeneſs, for he is ſaid to have written the greater part of his Davideis while ſo young a ſtudent; a work, of which the materials could not have been collected without the ſtudy of many years, but by a mind of the greateſt vigour and activity, a mind capacious by nature and repleniſhed by ſtudy. In 1643, being maſter of arts, he was, by the prevalence of the parliament, ejected from Cambridge, and ſheltered himſelf at St. John's College, Oxford; where he publiſhed a ſatire called the Puritan and Papiſt, and ſo diſtinguiſhed himſelf by the warmth of his loyalty, and the elegance of his converſation, that he gained the kindneſs and confidence of thoſe who attended the king.

About the time when Oxford was ſurrendered to the parliament he followed the queen to Paris, where he became ſecretary to lord Jermin, and was employed in ſuch correſpondence as the royal cauſe required, particularly in cyphering and decyphering the letters that paſſed between the king and queen; an employment of the higheſt confidence and honour.

Some years afterward he was ſent back into England privately, to give notice of the poſture of things in the nation. Soon after his return he was ſeized upon by ſome meſſengers of the uſurping powers, who were ſent in purſuit of another man, and put into confinement; from which he was not releaſed without the ſecurity of a thouſand pounds. At the reſtoration, after all the diligence of his long ſervice, and with conſciouſneſs not only of the merit of fidelity, but the dignity of great abilities, he naturally expected ample preferments; but this was a time of ſuch general hope, that great numbers were inevitably diſappointed, and Cowley among the reſt, who miſſed obtaining the maſterſhip of the Savoy, which had been promiſed him by Charles I, and Charles II. His deſire of ſolitude, which (ſays Spratt) was the only thing in his diſpoſition which ever ought to have been changed, now returned vehemently upon him.

Weary of the vexations of an active condition, ſatiated with the arts of a court—which ſort of life, though his virtue made it innocent to him, yet nothing could make it quiet—theſe were the reaſons that moved him to follow the violent inclination of his own mind, which, in the greateſt throng of his former buſineſs, had ſtill called upon him, and repreſented to him the true delights of ſolitary ſtudies, of temperate pleaſures, and a moderate revenue. He retired into Surry; but no ſooner found an opportunity of beginning to live indeed, and to enjoy himſelf in ſecurity, in the country, which he had always fancied above all pleaſure, than his contentment was firſt broken by ſickneſs, and then by death, in the forty ninth year of his age, at the Porch-houſe, Chertſey, 1667. It is not ſtrange, that the retreat of a man of ſuch abilities, who went away unrewarded with preferment, ſhould have been aſcribed to diſguſt, notwithſtanding the repreſentation of his biographer: Wood attributes it ſolely to this cauſe. Yet there remains ample teſtimony, in the juvenile works of Cowley, of that innate love of retirement, which, in all ages, has adhered cloſely to thoſe minds moſt enlarged by knowledge and elevated by genius. That diſappointments have a tendency to increaſe it cannot be denied; but he himſelf has left this account of his early taſte in one of his proſe eſſays. 'As far as my memory can return back in o my paſt life, before I was capable of gueſſing what the world, or glories, or buſineſs were, the natural affections of my ſoul gave a ſecret bent of averſion from them: that I was then in the ſame mind as I am now, may appear by an ode printed when I was thirteen years old. With theſe affections, and my heart wholly ſet upon letters, I went to the univerſity; but was ſoon torn from thence by that violent public ſtorm, which would ſuffer nothing to ſtand as it did, but rooted up every plant, from the princely cedar to me the hyſſop: yet I had as good fortune as could have befallen me in ſuch a tempeſt; for I was caſt into the family of one of the beſt princeſſes in the world, in a crowd of good company, in buſineſs of honourable truſt, and a daily ſight of greatneſs: yet all this was ſo far from altering my opinion, that it only added the confirmation of reaſon to it; and I could not abſtain from my ſchool-boy's wiſh, long ago printed.

'Well,—then I now do plainly ſee,
This buſie world and I ſhall ne'er agree.

'Nor did I purpoſe to myſelf any other advantage from the reſtoration than obtaining ſome convenient retreat: nor, by the failure of ſome ſupplies which I expected, did I quit my deſign. But God laughs at man, who ſays to his ſoul, *take thine eaſe*. I met not only with many incumbrances, but with as much ſickneſs as would have ſpoiled the happineſs of an emperor as well as mine: yet I do neither repent nor alter my courſe.'—Surely no man was ever better qualified to eſtimate and to enjoy the calm delights of quiet and retirement than Cowley. He was born a poet; he is repreſented to have been of the moſt amiable nature, as poſſeſſing great integrity, and preſerving it in the moſt difficult ſtations; and he was eminently endowed with the requiſites which he deſcribes as indiſpenſably neceſſary for men who ſeek ſecluſion; 'having knowledge enough of the world to ſee the vanity of it, and enough virtue to deſpiſe all vanity.' He had a taſte for agriculture; had cultivated the ſtudy of botany; and, to uſe his own words, '*only went out of the world as it was man's, into the ſame world as it was Nature's, and as it was God's.*'

Cowley, like other poets who have paid their court to temporary prejudices, has been at one time too much praiſed, and too much neglected at another.

His Miſcellanies contain a collection of ſhort compoſitions, with great va-

riety of ſtyle and ſentiment, from burleſque levity to awful grandeur. Such an aſſemblage of diverſified beauties no other writer has afforded.

His Ode on Wit is without a rival: of all the paſſages in which poets have exemplified their own precepts, none will be found of greater excellence than that in which he condemns the exuberance of wit.

The Chronicle is a compoſition unrivalled; ſuch gayety of fancy, ſuch a ſucceſſion of images, and ſuch a dance of words, it is vain to expect from any other author. The moraliſt, the politician, and the critic, mingle their influence in this airy frolic of genius.

Of his Anacreontiques, or paraphraſtic tranſlations of little ſongs, dedicated to feſtivity, of which the morality is voluptuous, he has given rather a pleaſing than a faithful repreſentation, having retained their ſprightlineſs, but loſt their ſimplicity.

The next claſs of poems is called *The Miſtreſs*; they have all the ſame beauties and faults, and, nearly in the ſame proportion, they are written with exuberance of wit and copiouſneſs of learning; he is never pathetic, and rarely ſublime, but always ingenious or ſcientific, either acute or profound. One of the ſevere theologians of that time cenſured him as having publiſhed a book of profane and laſcivious verſes. From the charge of profaneneſs the conſtant tenor of his life, which was eminently virtuous, and the tendency of his opinions, which diſcover no irreverence for religion, muſt defend him. From Donne he learned that familiarity with religious images, and that light alluſion to ſacred things, by which readers, far ſhort of ſanctity, are offended, and which would not be borne in the preſent age, when devotion, not more fervent, is more delicate; but that the accuſation of laſciviouſneſs is unjuſt, the peruſal of his works will ſufficiently evince.

In his Pindaric Odes he has given, though not the ſame numbers, the ſame diction to the gentle Anacreon and the tempeſtuous Pindar. Whatever was his ſubject, he is carried, by a kind of deſtiny, to the light and the familiar, or to conceits which require ſtill more ignoble epithets. Yet there are inſtances wherein he riſes to dignity truly Pindaric; and, if ſome deficiencies of language be forgiven, his ſtrains are ſuch as were thoſe of the Theban bard to his contemporaries.

The proſe of Cowley has never yet obtained its due commendation: no author kept his verſe and proſe at a greater diſtance from each other: his thoughts are natural, his ſtyle has a ſmooth equanimity; all is eaſy without feebleneſs, and familiar without groſſneſs. He was, in his own time, conſidered as of unrivalled excellence; and, it may be affirmed, without any encomiaſtic fervour, that his pages are embelliſhed with all the ornaments which books could ſupply; that his imagination equals his learning; and, had he not been corrupted by the taſte of the age, poſterity would have agreed with Milton concerning him, who is ſaid to have declared 'that the three greateſt Engliſh poets were Spencer, Shakſpeare, and Cowley.'

Butler, a man whoſe name can only periſh with his language, paſſed his life in the miſt of obſcurity: the date of his birth is doubtful; the mode and place of his education are unknown; the events of his life are variouſly related; and all that can be told with certainty is, 'that he was poor.'

The poem of Hudibras is one of thoſe compoſitions of which a nation may juſtly boaſt: as the images which it exhibits are domeſtic, the ſentiments unborrowed and unexpected, and the ſtrain of diction original and peculiar. We muſt not, however, ſuffer the pride which we aſſume, as the countrymen of Butler, to make any encroachment on juſtice, nor appropriate thoſe honours which others have a right to ſhare. This poem is not wholly Engliſh: the original idea is to be found in the hiſtory of Don Quixotte; a book to which a mind

of the greateſt powers may be indebted without diſgrace. If inexhauſtible wit could give perpetual pleaſure, no eye would ever leave half-read the work of Butler. It is ſcarcely poſſible to peruſe a page without finding ſome aſſociation of ideas which was never found before: by the firſt paragraph the reader is amuſed, by the next he is delighted, and by a few more ſtrained to aſtoniſhment; but aſtoniſhment is a toilſome pleaſure; he is ſoon weary wondering, and longs to be diverted. Perhaps every reader regrets the paucity of events, and complains that, in the poem of Hudibras, as in the hiſtory of Thucydides, there is more ſaid than done: it is indeed much eaſier to form dialogues than to continue adventures. Whether it be that we comprehend but few of the poſſibilities of life, or that life itſelf affords little variety, every author who has attempted knows how much labour it will coſt to form ſuch a combination of circumſtances as ſhall have at once the grace of novelty and of credibility, and delight fancy without violence to reaſon.

Imagination is uſeleſs without knowledge: nature gives, in vain, the power of combination, unleſs ſtudy and obſervation ſupply materials to be combined. Butler's treaſures of knowledge appear proportioned to his expence: whatever topic employs his mind, he ſhows himſelf qualified to expand and illuſtrate it with all the acceſſories that books can furniſh: he is found not only to have travelled the beaten road, but the bye-paths of literature; not only to have taken general ſurveys, but to have examined particulars with minute inſpection. If the French boaſt the learning of Rabelais, we need not be afraid of confronting them with Butler. But the moſt valuable parts of his performance are thoſe which neither retired ſtudy, nor native wit, could ſupply: he that merely makes a book from books, may be uſeful, but can ſcarcely be great: Butler had not ſuffered life to glide beſide him unſeen or unobſerved. He had watched, with great diligence, the operations of human nature, and traced the effects of opinion, humour, intereſt, and paſſion. From ſuch remarks proceeded that great number of ſententious diſtichs which have paſſed into converſation, and are added as proverbial axioms to the general ſtock of practical knowledge.

But human works are not eaſily found without a periſhable part: of the ancient poets, every reader feels the mythology tedious and oppreſſive. Of Hudibras, the manners being founded on opinions, are temporary and local, and therefore become every day leſs intelligible and leſs entertaining. Such remarks as depend upon ſtanding relations and general manners are co-extended with the race of men; but thoſe modifications of life, and peculiarities of practice, which are the progeny of error and perverſeneſs, or of ſome incidental influence, muſt periſh with their parents. The meaſure is quick, ſprightly, and colloquial, ſuitable to the vulgarity of the words and the levity of the ſentiments; but ſuch numbers and ſuch diction can gain regard only when they are uſed by a writer whoſe vigour of fancy and copiouſneſs of knowledge entitle him to contempt of ornaments; and who, in confidence of the novelty and juſtneſs of his conceptions, can afford to throw metaphors and epithets away.

Butler died in 1680; and, ſixty years after his death, a monument was erected to his memory in Weſtminſter Abbey; which occaſioned the following epigram:

'When Butler, needy wretch, was yet alive,
No gen'rous patron would a dinner give.
See him, when ſtarv'd to death, and turn'd to duſt,
Preſented with a monumental buſt!
The poet's fate is here in emblem ſhown;
He aſk'd for bread, and he receiv'd a ſtone.'

[To be continued.]

THE BRITISH MUSE.

LINES deſcribing the temporary REVIVAL of the ART of SCULPTURE under the REIGN of ADRIAN; with a viſionary SCENE, ſuppoſed to be ſuggeſted on the RUINS of his celebrated VILLA.

By WILLIAM HAYLEY, Eſq.

LO, with new joy, peculiarly their own,
The Arts ſurrounding the Cæſarean throne!
See their prime patron that firm throne aſcend,
Talent's enlighten'd judge, and Sculpture's friend!
His ſpirit, active as the boundleſs air,
Pervades each province of imperial Care,
While fated Conqueſt keeps his banner furl'd,
And peace and beauty re-adorn the world.
Accompliſh'd Adrian! doom'd to double fame,
Uniting brighteſt praiſe and darkeſt blame!
To noble heights the monarch's merit ran,
But injur'd Nature execrates the man.
Had he, with various bright endowments bleſt,
The higher ſway of that ſweet power confeſs'd,
How might fair Sculpture, in her triumphs chaſte,
Unbluſhing, glory in her ſovereign's taſte!
Wielding himſelf her implements of ſkill,
He joy'd the cities of the earth to fill
With all the ſplendour that endears the day
Of cheriſh'd talents and pacific ſway;
Aiming, by lib'ral patronage, to crown
Athens, Art's fav'rite ſeat, with new renown!
In her conſummated Olympian fane
He taught ſublime magnificence to reign.
Where, in rich ſcenes, beneath uncloudeed ſkies,
He bids his own Italian villa riſe,
Th' imperial ſtructures with ſuch charms increaſe,
They form a fair epitome of Greece.
There all her temples, theatres, and towers,
Fabrics for ſtudious and for active hours,
All that made Attica the eye's delight,
In ſweet reflection re-inchant the ſight.
O Deſolation! thou haſt ne'er defac'd
More graceful precincts of imperial Taſte!
But, with a ravage by no charms controll'd
O'er the proud ſpot thy ruthleſs flood has roll'd:
Still from thy vortex, by the tide of Time,
Its buried treaſures riſe, to deck ſome diſtant clime.

As o'er this faireſt ſcene of ſcenes auguſt
Whoſe pride has moulder'd into ſhapeleſs duſt,
My fancy mus'd, a viſion of the night
Brought it in recent ſplendor to my ſight.
Its ſhrines, its ſtatues, its Lyceum caught
My wond'ring eye, and fix'd my roving thought:
Beneath the ſhadow of a laurel bough,
With all the cares of empire on his brow,
I ſaw the maſter of the villa rove
In ſhades that ſeem'd the academic grove:
Sudden a form, array'd in ſofteſt light,
Benignly ſimple, temperately bright,
Yet more than mortal, in the quiet vale,
Appear'd the penſive emperor to hail.
Sculpture's inſignia, and her graceful mien,
Announc'd of finer arts the modeſt queen.
Troubled, yet mild in geſture and in tone,
She made the troubles of her ſpirit known:
'O thou,' ſhe ſaid, 'that in thy ſovereign plan
Art often more, and often leſs than man!
Whom, as my juſt, though ſtrange emotions riſe,
I love, admire, and pity, and deſpiſe!
While to vain heights thy blind ambition towers,
Thou haſt ennobled and debas'd my powers
As far as fame and infamy can ſtretch,
To deck the world, and deify a wretch!
I come th' Almighty Spirit to obey,
For Arts are heralds of his purer day—
I come, with viſions of portentous aim,
To mortify thy frantic rage of fame!
As a prophetic parent, taught to trace
The future troubles of a fated race,
'Tis mine to ſhew how ruin ſhall be hurl'd
On the vain grandeur of thy Roman world.
Mark how my viſionary ſcenes reveal
The deſtin'd havoc that our works muſt feel!'
She ſpoke, and ſuddenly before her grew
The ſemblance of a city large and new,
Where pomp imperial ſeem'd employ'd to place
Sculpture's prime labours on a laſting baſe.
There Samian Juno and Olympian Jove,
The rareſt treaſures of each holy grove,
The pride of ranſack'd Aſia, Greece and Rome,
There, in new ſcenes, new dignity aſſume.
The ſtartled maſter of the Roman throne
Exclaim'd, in envy's quick indignant tone,
'What mean theſe pageants that my eyes explore?
They ſeem to ſparkle on Byzantium's ſhore!'

The lovely raiſer of the viſion cried,
'Thou ſee'ſt a ſecond Rome in Roman pride!
But turn, and ſee what miſeries await
The pomp that wakes thy envy! Mark its fate!'
He turn'd: but O, what language can diſcloſe
The changing ſcene's accumulated woes?
Barbaric outrage, rapine, ſword, and fire,
Convert it to a vaſt funereal pyre.
Supreme in height, coloſſal Phœbus burns,
Thy Phydian braſs to fluid lava turns;
And lo, yet dearer to poetic eyes,
The living bronze of high-wrought Homer dies!
The ſculptur'd pride of every clime and age,
The guardian god, the hero, and the ſage,
All in promiſcuous devaſtation fall;
And Time, ſelf-ſtyl'd the conqueror of all—
Time, the proud offspring of Lyſippus' hand,
Adorn'd with emblems of his wide command—
Time periſhes himſelf! Aggriev'd, aghaſt,
The heart-ſtruck Adrian exclaim'd at laſt,
'Show me no more of diſtant lands the doom—
I aſk the fate of my embelliſh'd Rome!'
'Look, and behold it!' the enchantreſs ſaid:
Byzantium diſappear'd, and in its ſtead
Rome's recent boaſt, with all its ſplendour crown'd,
The ſpeaking monarch's monumental mound,
In graceful pomp aroſe, and on its height,
That glitter'd to our view with oriental light,
His image ſeem'd to guide a blazing car,
And ſhone triumphant like the morning ſtar.
Sudden at ſounds of diſcord and diſmay,
The imperial form in darkneſs melts away;
The mauſoleum, of ſtupendous ſtate,
Turns to a fort; and at its guarded gate
Barbaric foes, in Roman plunder fierce,
Strain their rough powers the maſſive mound to pierce.
Romans defend the dome: but O what arms
Raſh Fury ſeizes in its blind alarms!
Marbles divine, of Praxitelian form,
Are ſnatch'd as weapons in the raging ſtorm;
And, in the tumult of defenſive wrath,
Are hurl'd in fragments at th' invading Goth.
On this dire fate of fav'rite ſtatues plac'd
To deck this hallow'd ſcene of royal taſte,
From wounded Pride a groan convulſive burſt,
And at the mournful ſound the viſions all diſpers'd.

LINES occaſioned by the fond Attention of a FATHERLESS NEPHEW.

WHEN the father was verging toward the cold grave,
Where life's ſorrows no longer annoy,
The child ſeem'd my care and protection to crave
For a poor little fatherleſs boy.

O, you be my father! he ſeemed to ſay,
The cares of my mother alloy,
And, when I can ſpeak, for thoſe I will pray
Who have foſtered a fatherleſs boy.

Me, my mother, and two other babes to maintain,
My father his time did employ;
But he never ſhall toil to ſupport us again—
I'm a poor little fatherleſs boy!

Then take me to you, my dear uncle and aunt,
My heart it ſhall gladden with joy;
Kind Heaven will ſurely preſerve you from want,
For your care of a fatherleſs boy.

In days that are diſtant of weakneſs and pain,
When life's fond enjoyments ſhall cloy,
I'll endeavour and toil my kind friends to ſuſtain,
Who pitied a fatherleſs boy.

Yes, infantine pleader, thy father I'll be;
For thee I my cares will employ;
And thou ſhalt forget—adopted by me,
That thou art a fatherleſs boy.

Gee-ſtreet, Goſwell-ſtreet. W. H.

Extempore VERSES on an EOLIAN HARP.

HARK! what a melting thrill of harmony
Swells on the boſom of each varying breeze;
Then, in a lingering dying cadence, ſinks
Irreſolute! That uncouth boiſterous pow'r,
Which rends the ſtately pine and lofty dome,
Like the ſoft kiſs of Love, with gentle breath,
Waves o'er the magic lyre; and, from each ſtring,
That ſlowly vibrates on the ear, draws forth
Such floating melody, as wafts the ſoul
To fairy regions of aerial bliſs.

PEACE BETWEEN GREAT BRITAIN AND FRANCE.

THE important event of the ſigning of Preliminaries of Peace, was communicated by lord Hawkeſbury to the lord-mayor, on Thurſday night, by a letter, of which the following is a copy:

'Downing-ſtreet, at night, October 1, 1801.

'My Lord,

'I have great ſatisfaction in informing you that Preliminaries of Peace between Great Britain and France have been ſigned this evening by myſelf, on the part of his Majeſty, and by M. Otto, on the part of the French government.

'I requeſt your lordſhip will have the goodneſs to make this intelligence immediately public in the city.

'I have the honour to be, &c.

(Signed) 'HAWKESBURY.'

The right hon. the lord-mayor.

Mr. Hunter, jun. the meſſenger, carried the letter to the Manſion-houſe; but his lordſhip being at his country-houſe at Clapham, Mr. Hunter immediately proceeded thither, and returned to London with his lordſhip. The intelligence, which had not tranſpired in any public circle on the preceding night, was generally known before nine o'clock in the morning. The lord-mayor went in perſon to Lloyd's coffee-houſe, and read the letter, which was afterward poſted at the bar, and at the Stock Exchange. It is impoſſible to expreſs the tumult of joy that univerſally ſucceeded the communication.

At noon was publiſhed the following

LONDON GAZETTE EXTRAORDINARY, Friday, October 2.

'Downing-ſtreet, October 2.

'Preliminaries of Peace between his Majeſty and the French Republic were ſigned laſt night at lord Hawkeſbury's office, in Downing-ſtreet, by the right hon. lord Hawkeſbury, one of his majeſty's principal ſecretaries of ſtate, on the part of his Majeſty, and by M. Otto, on the part of the French government.'

On Saturday, October 10, The Ratification of the preliminary articles was announced to the public, by the following letter from lord Hawkeſbury to the lord-mayor:

'Downing-ſtreet, October 10.

'My Lord,

'I have the ſatisfaction to inform your lordſhip, that general Lauriſton arrived in town this morning, with the Ratification of the Preliminaries of Peace, ſigned on the 1ſt inſtant. The Ratification of the two governments has this afternoon been exchanged between M. Otto and myſelf.

(Signed) HAWKESBURY.'

At three o'clock the Park and Tower guns were fired, and in the evening was publiſhed the following

LONDON GAZETTE EXTRAORDINARY, Saturday, October 10.

'Downing-ſtreet, October 10.

'The Ratification of the Preliminary Articles of Peace between his Majeſty and the French Republic, ſigned on the 1ſt inſtant, were this day exchanged by the right hon. lord Hawkeſbury, one of his majeſty's principal ſecretaries of ſtate, and by M. Otto.'

PRELIMINARY ARTICLES OF PEACE

Between his Britannic Majeſty and the French Republic, ſigned at London, (in Engliſh and French) the 1ſt of October, 1801; the 9th Vendemiaire, Year 10 of the French Republic.

[Publiſhed by Authority.]

HIS majeſty the king of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and the firſt conſul of the French republic, in the name of the French people, being animated with an equal deſire of putting an end to the calamities of a deſtructive war, and of re-eſtabliſhing union and good underſtanding between the two countries, have named for this purpoſe; namely, his Britannic majeſty, the right honourable Robert Banks Jenkinſon, commonly called lord Hawkeſbury, one of his Britannic majeſty's moſt honourable privy council, and his principal ſecretary of ſtate for foreign affairs; and the firſt conſul of the French republic, in the name of the French people, citizen Lewis William Otto, commiſſary for the exchange of French priſoners in England, who, after having duly communicated to each other their full powers, in good form, have agreed on the following preliminary articles:—

Article I. As ſoon as the preliminaries ſhall be ſigned and ratified, ſincere friendſhip ſhall be re-eſtabliſhed between his Britannic majeſty and the French republic, by ſea and by land, in all parts of the world; and in order that all hoſtilities may ceaſe immediately between the two powers, and between them and their allies reſpectively, the neceſſary inſtructions ſhall be ſent with the utmoſt diſpatch to the commanders of the ſea and land forces of the reſpective ſtates, and each of the contracting parties engages to grant paſſports, and every facility requiſite to accelerate the arrival, and enſure the execution of theſe orders. It is further agreed that all conqueſts which may have been made by either of the contracting parties from the other, or from their reſpective allies, ſubſequently to the ratification of the preſent preliminaries, ſhall be conſidered as of no effect, and ſhall be faithfully comprehended in the reſtitutions to be made after the ratification of the definitive treaty.

II. His Britannic majeſty ſhall reſtore to the French republic and her allies, namely, to his catholic majeſty, and to the Batavian republic, all the poſſeſſions and colonies occupied or conquered by the Engliſh forces in the courſe of the preſent war, with the exception of the iſland of Trinidad and the Dutch poſſeſſions in the iſland of Ceylon, of which iſland and poſſeſſions his Britannic majeſty reſerves to himſelf the full and entire ſovereignty.

III. The port of the Cape of Good Hope ſhall be open to the commerce and navigation of the two contracting parties, who ſhall enjoy therein the ſame advantages.

IV. The iſland of Malta, with its dependencies, ſhall be evacuated by the troops of his Britannic majeſty, and reſtored to the order of St. John of Jeruſalem. For the purpoſe of rendering this iſland completely independent of either of the two contracting parties, it ſhall be placed under the guarantee and protection of a third power, to be agreed upon in the definitive treaty.

V. Egypt ſhall be reſtored to the Sublime Porte, whoſe territories and poſſeſſions ſhall be preſerved entire, ſuch as they exiſted previouſly to the preſent war.

VI. The territories and poſſeſſions of her moſt faithful majeſty ſhall likewiſe be preſerved entire.

VII. The French forces ſhall evacuate the kingdom of Naples and the Roman territory. The Engliſh forces ſhall in like manner evacuate Porto Ferrajo, and generally all the ports and iſlands which they may occupy in the Mediterranean, or in the Adriatic.

VIII. The republic of the Seven Iſlands ſhall be acknowledged by the French republic.

IX. The evacuations, ceſſions, and reſtitutions, ſtipulated for by the preſent preliminary articles, ſhall take place in Europe, within one month; in the continent and ſeas of America and Africa, within three months; and in the continent and ſeas of Aſia, within ſix months after the ratification of the definitive treaty.

X. The priſoners made reſpectively ſhall, immediately after the exchange of the definitive treaty, all be reſtored, and without ranſom, on paying reciprocally the debts which they may have individually contracted. Diſcuſſions having ariſen reſpecting the payment for the maintenanc

of prisoners of war, the contracting powers reserve this question to be settled by the definitive treaty according to the law of nations, and in conformity to established usage.

XI. In order to prevent all causes of complaint and dispute which may arise on account of prizes which may be made at sea after the signature of the preliminary articles, it is reciprocally agreed, that the vessels and effects which may be taken in the British Channel and in the North Seas, after the space of twelve days, to be computed from the exchange of the ratification of the present preliminary articles, shall be restored on each side; that the term shall be one month from the British Channel and the North Seas, as far as the Canary islands inclusively, whether in the Ocean or in the Mediterranean; two months from the said Canary Islands as far as the equator; and lastly, five months in all parts of the world, without any exception, or any more particular description of time or place.

XII. All sequestrations imposed by either of the parties on the funded property, revenues, or debts, of any description, belonging to either of the contracting powers, or to their subjects or citizens, shall be taken off immediately after the signature of the definitive treaty. The decision of all claims brought forward by individuals of the one country against individuals of the other for private rights, debts, property, or effects, whatsoever, which, according to received usages, and the law of nations, ought to revive at the period of peace, shall be heard and decided before the competent tribunals; and in all cases prompt and ample justice shall be administered in the countries where the claims are made. It is agreed, moreover, that this article, immediately after the ratification of the definitive treaty, shall apply to the allies of the contracting parties, and to the individuals of the respective nations, upon the condition of a just reciprocity.

XIII. With respect to the fisheries on the coasts of the island of Newfoundland and of the islands adjacent, and in the gulph of St. Lawrence, the two parties have agreed to restore them to the same footing on which they were before the present war, reserving to themselves the power of making, in the definitive treaty, such arrangements as shall appear just and reciprocally useful, in order to place the fishing of the two nations in the most proper footing for the maintenance of peace.

XIV. In all the cases of restitution agreed upon by the present treaty, the fortifications shall be delivered up in the state in which they may be at the time of the signature of the present treaty, and all the works which shall have been constructed since the occupation shall remain untouched. It is further agreed, that in all the cases of cession stipulated in the present treaty, there shall be allowed to the inhabitants, of whatever condition or nation they may be, a term of three years, to be computed from the notification of the definitive treaty of peace, for the purpose of disposing of their properties, acquired and possessed either before or during the present war; in the which term of three years they may have the free exercise of their religion, and enjoyment of their property. The same privilege shall be granted in the countries restored, to all those who shall have made therein any establishments whatsoever during the time when those countries were in the possession of Great Britain. With respect to the other inhabitants of the countries restored or ceded, it is agreed that none of them shall be prosecuted, disturbed, or molested in their persons or properties under any pretext, on account of their conduct or political opinions, or of their attachment to either of the two Powers, nor on any other account, except that of debts contracted to individuals, or on account of acts posterior to the definitive treaty.

XV. The present preliminary articles shall be ratified, and the ratifications exchanged, in London, in the space of fifteen days for all delay; and immediately after their ratification, plenipotentiaries shall be named on each side, who shall repair to Amiens for the purpose of concluding a definitive treaty of peace in concert with the allies of the contracting parties.

In witness whereof, we, the undersigned plenipotentiaries of his Britannic majesty, and of the first consul of the French republic, by virtue of our respective full powers, have signed the present preliminary articles, and have caused our seals to be put thereto.

Done at London the first day of October, one thousand eight hundred and one, the ninth Vendemiaire, year ten of the French republic.

HAWKESBURY. (L. S.) OTTO. (L. S.)

The BRIEF *of his Holineſs the* POPE, *with the Proceedings of the* FRENCH BISHOPS.

To the venerable Brethren, Archbiſhops and Biſhops of France, holding the Communion and Grace of the Apoſtolic See.

PIUS, P.P. VII.

Venerable Brethren,

Health and Apoſtolic Bleſſing.

SO many and ſo ſignal are the ſervices which, both as a general body, and as individuals of the catholic faith, you have performed, that on this account you have merited from us and from our predeceſſor Pius VI, now happily at reſt, the higheſt commendations and the higheſt praiſe of your virtue.

But although what you have done for the church, and for the advantage of the faithful, be very great and highly glorious to you, yet the ſtate of the times forces us to notify to you, that you have not yet fulfilled that meritorious career of glory for which the counſels of Divine Providence have reſerved your courage in theſe times. Greater ſacrifices, O venerable fathers, ſtill remain to be added to thoſe by which you have diſtinguiſhed yourſelves, and you have ſtill to add higher claims to thoſe which you now have to the gratitude of the church. The preſervation of the unity of the church, the re-eſtabliſhment of the catholic religion in France, demand a new example of virtue and of greatneſs of ſoul in you, which may teach all nations, that the holy zeal with which you burn for the church, has for its object its advantage, and not your own. Your eccleſiaſtical ſeats are voluntarily to be reſigned, and the ſame muſt be given up freely into our hands. It is requiring much of you, venerable brethren; it is, however, equally neceſſary, both that we ſhould make this demand, and that you ſhould comply with it, in order to re-eſtabliſh order in France in the affairs of the church. We feel, indeed, how much it muſt coſt your hearts to abandon thoſe flocks which are ſo dear to you, to the ſafety of which you have given ſo much attention, and which, even in your abſence, have been the object of your moſt tender ſolicitude. But the more bitter the ſacrifice, the more agreeable will it be to God; the reward which you will have to expect from it will be proportioned to your grief and to his benevolence. With the whole energy of our ſoul, do we call upon your virtue; we will call upon you by the bleſſed name of Jeſus, to complete this ſacrifice for the preſervation of unity.

A knowledge of the diſtinguiſhed doctrine, and of the remarkable virtue which we have ever remarked in you in the moſt trying circumſtances of the church, makes us certain that you will immediately forward to us your voluntary letters of abdication. We cannot entertain a doubt, that any of the wiſe and virtuous paſtors of the French church, can for a moment, heſitate to comply with our paternal advice, and to follow the illuſtrious example of Gregory Nazianzenius, when he reſigned the biſhopric of Conſtantinople. And certainly, in the ſituation in which we ſtand, what reaſon can we have to ſuſpect that any of you would reſiſt our counſels and our intreaties, if he recollects what the church in general has reſolved, and what St. Auguſtin has ſaid—*Contrą Creſcentium.* Lib. ii, c. 9.—'We are not biſhops for our own ſakes, but for the ſakes of thoſe to whom we adminiſter the ſacrament of our Lord; and theſe, as neceſſity ſhall require, we are either to be or not to be, as they may require; as it is not for ourſelves, but for them, that we govern.'

You know, venerable brethren, that many illuſtrious heads of the church have, for the benefit of their churches, as well as for the preſervation of unity, voluntarily reſigned their ſees, and that a ſhort time before the famous council at Carthage, nearly three hundred catholic biſhops thought it neceſſary to declare, that they ſhould be ready to reſign their biſhoprics, in caſe their abdication ſhould conduce to the deſtruction of the ſchiſm of the Donatiſts. Several of your venerable body muſt certainly have had theſe examples before their eyes, and their minds penetrated with theſe maxims, when in their letters of the 3d of May 1791, they declared to Pius VI, our predeceſſor, that they werre diſpoſed to reſign their ſees, if the good of religion required it*. A laudable meaſure, which well deſerved the praiſe beſtowed upon it by the ſovereign pontiff. In later times there have been found among us men who have propoſed, by letters, to make the ſame ſacrifice, if

* September 20, 1791—the Archbiſhops of Lyons, Paris and Vienna.

the preſervation of religion in France required it. We have now reached thoſe times, in which this voluntary abdication of your ſees is abſolutely indiſpenſible to the good of the catholic religion, and we have no doubt that you will manifeſt this homage to God, and that you will offer him this new ſacrifice to which you know you are bound, and which you have ſo generouſly offered for the church.

With a certainty, therefore, from that opinion which we have ever entertained of your religion, and of your virtue, that you will, upon the peruſal of theſe letters, manifeſt the greateſt deſire of ſerving the church and of preſerving unity in France, and that you will yield without delay and with the greateſt docility to our exhortations, we congratulate you on that immortal glory which this new teſtimony of virtue, religion, and obedience, which you are about to manifeſt to the catholic church, will enſure you. So great will be this glory, that it will far ſurpaſs all that you have already acquired by your perils, your calamities, and your conſtancy in the ſervice of religion and of the churches entruſted to your care. It is thus that St. Auguſtin, in his epiſtle to Caſtorius writes, 'It is by far more glorious to have laid aſide the burden in order to avoid the danger, than to have taken it up for the ſake of ruling.'—We congratulate you ſtill more on the immenſe reward which your ſacrifice will receive from God, the remunerator of the juſt, for as St. Gregory Nazianzenius writes,

'They do not loſe God who reſign their high ſituation, but they ſhall have an exalted ſeat far above, and more ſafe than that which they reſign.'

We congratulate you, laſtly, on the advantage which theſe memorable inſtances of ſelf denial muſt produce, and on the evidence of obedience, humility, and faith, which this glorious retirement from epiſcopacy will afford. This devotion on your part will, doubtleſs, ſilence all detractors of the ſacerdotal character, and all thoſe who calumniouſly repreſent pomp, luſt, and pride, as the attributes of the miniſters of the ſanctuary. The new ſplendour with which you will be adorned, will draw from them, in ſpite of themſelves, admiration of ſuch virtue; and they will be forced to confeſs with reſpect to the church, what St. Auguſtin himſelf preaches in the before-mentioned letter to Caſtorius, 'That thoſe are in Jeſus Chriſt, not who ſeek their own advantage, but that of Jeſus Chriſt.'

We are compelled by the urgent neceſſity of the times, which even in this exerciſes its power over us, *(quæ in hoc etiam in nos vim ſuam exercet)* to ſignify to you, that it is abſolutely neceſſary that you ſhould ſend an anſwer in writing in ten days at fartheſt, and that you deliver it to the perſon from whom you receive this letter, of which you will not fail to acknowledge the receipt. We have further to ſignify to you, conſidering the urgency of the ſame cauſes, that your reply to our letter muſt be abſolute, and not at all dilatory, and that if you do not, in the ſpace of ten days, ſend an abſolute anſwer, or if you ſend a dilatory reply, we ſhall be compelled to look upon you as having refuſed to obey our commands.

That ſuch will not be the caſe we are induced to hope, from the ardent zeal which you have for the preſervation of religion, and the peace of the church; from your filial piety; from the obedience which you have ever manifeſted, and the care, amid all our ſolicitudes, to alleviate our burden, and to afford us all the aſſiſtance of your virtue. You will, with zeal and alacrity, ſubmit to our exhortations, and to preſſing intreaties with which we are compelled to ſolicit your piety. We can the leſs doubt this, becauſe from your information you muſt know, that in caſe you ſhould refuſe to accede to our requeſt, (we ſpeak it with grief, but in the imminent perils in which the intereſts of Chriſtianity ſtand, we are compelled to ſay it), the neceſſity of oppoſing, as far as we are concerned, no obſtacle to the preſervation of the unity of the catholic religion, and to the re-eſtabliſhment of the tranquillity of the church, would oblige us to take a part proper to remove all obſtacles, and to procure the advantage of religion.

Of our reſpect, our zeal, and our good will toward you, venerable brethren; of our conſtant eſteem for your virtue, your dignity, and your merits, we conſider you ſufficiently convinced to ſtand in need of no aſſurance that, on our part, nothing has been omitted to ſpare you ſo bitter an affliction. Nevertheleſs, it muſt be confeſſed with great grief, that no ſolicitude on our part, no labours have been equal to reſiſt the neceſſity of the times to which we have all been condemned to ſubmit, in order that by this your ſacrifice the catholic religion may be preſerved. Having weighed this in an equal balance, we ſhould, we conceive, do injuſtice to your religion, if we ſhould ſuppoſe that you could prefer your own reaſons to the preſervation of the church, and that you

could forget what St. Auguſtin, in the name of the biſhops of Africa, wrote to the tribune Marcellinus, when he declared, that thoſe heads of the church were ready to reſign. 'What,' ſaid he, 'ſhall we heſitate to make this ſacrifice of humility to our Redeemer? Did not he deſcend from heaven to take upon him humanity, that we might become members of him, and ſhall we, to void the cruel laceration of his members fear to deſcend from our ſeats.' Nothing more is requiſite to us, than that we ſhould be faithful and obedient Chriſtians. This we muſt ever be as biſhops; we are merely ordained for the benefit of Chriſtian people. Whatever, therefore, conduces to the peace of the Chriſtian world is part of our eccleſiaſtical duty. If we are uſeful ſervants, why ſhould we grudge to interchange high temporal offices for the eternal gain of our Lord? The epiſcopal dignity will be more profitable if the flock of Chriſt be rather collected by our laying it aſide, than diſperſed by our holding it. With what face ſhall we hope for that honour from Chriſt, which is promiſed hereafter, if our temporal honour is an impediment to unity here?

As, therefore, we entertain little doubt but that from your tried religion, and approved wiſdom, you will conſult the intereſts of the church, we beſeech the Almighty to give energy to your virtue; that as it becomes donors both to be ready and chearful, ſo you may offer this gift the more readily; promiſing for our part, to ſpare no pains to provide as advantageouſly for your proſperity, beſtowing on you, at the ſame time, with tenderneſs, the apoſtolic benediction, as a pledge of our paternal charity.

Given at Rome, Auguſt 15, 1801, and in the ſecond year of our Pontificate, under the Seal of the Fiſherman.

PIUS P.P. VII.

(Compared with the original)

MICHAEL, Patriarch of Jeruſalem.

Letter addreſſed by Monſeigneur Erſkine to each of the French Biſhops reſiding in England.

'Illuſtrious and Rev. Lord,

'In obedience to the expreſs order which I have received from our moſt holy father Pope Pius the Seventh, I ſend you, my lord, the pontifical brief, which you will find annexed thereto. I pray you to inform me of the receipt of it without any delay, and alſo to ſend me without any delay, the anſwer which ſhall ſeem fit.

'His holineſs has not neglected to employ all poſſible means to preſerve you in the poſſeſſion of your ſee; but he has ſuffered the moſt lively regret in finding that the urgency of circumſtances renders the reſignation of the biſhops indiſpenſible; it is neceſſary for the unity, the peace, and the re-eſtabliſhment of the catholic religion in France.

'His holineſs charges me beſide to aſſure you, my lord, that he has, in the beſt manner that he could, recommended your perſon to the firſt conſul, with the deſign, either of directing his view toward you in the nomination to the ſees of the new conſcription, or, at leaſt, to provide for your ſubſiſtence; and ſuch, my lord, is the deſire of the holy father to contribute to your comfort in the beſt manner poſſible, that he will not neglect any one favourable occaſion of lightening the burthen which preſſes on you, and of providing for your perſonal wants.

'Having thus fulfilled the orders given me by the ſovereign pontiff, it remains for me to offer you, for myſelf, all the ſervices that can depend upon me, and to aſſure you that

'I am, my Lord, &c.

'CHARLES ERSKINE.'

London, 42, Great Mary-la-bonne-ſtreet, Sept. 16.

On the 19th of September a general meeting of the French archbiſhops and biſhops of France, in this country, was appointed to be held at the archbiſhop of Narbonne's, in Orchard-ſtreet, to take into conſideration the above brief of his holineſs the pope, directed to cardinal Erſkine, the pope's nuncio in England.

The following are the archbiſhops now in London:

Dillon, archbiſhop of Narbonne, aged 81 years.

Boiſgelin, archbiſhop of Aix, aged 70 years.

Circe, archbiſhop of Bourdeaux, aged 68 years.

The biſhops of S. Paul de Leon;—Noyon; — Vannes; — Angouleme; — Montpeſlier; — Perigeux;—Lombez;—Moulins; — Nantes; — Leſcars; — Comignes;—Uſer;—Arras;—Avranches.

Second Letter from Mr. C. Erſkine to the French Archbiſhops and Biſhops.

'My Lord,

'In my letter of the 16th inſt. with which I had the honour to tranſmit the brief of the ſovereign pontiff, which I ſent to you by the expreſs order of his holineſs

pope Pius VII. as well as to each of your colleagues residing in this kingdom, I solicited your greatness, as well as your colleagues, to transmit me the answer that each individually would think proper to make. I have, however, heard it said, that in consequence of the meeting held by your greatness, you intend to answer collectively to the paternal invitation of his holiness; I, therefore, find myself strictly obliged, my lord, to inform you, and to beg of you to intimate the same to your colleagues, that by this means you will not fulfil the intention of his holiness, who has precisely commanded me to transmit his brief to each of you, in order that you might separately, and after having invoked by your prayers the distribution of understanding, make such an answer as you conceive yourselves in conscience to be inspired with by the Father of Mercies. —I am persuaded, my lord, that you and your colleagues would experience an acute sensation, if in the answer to his holiness you had adopted, even involuntary, a method little conformable to the desires of the holy father, and which are not entirely congenial to the filial respect which you have constantly manifested toward the sovereign pontiff. I flatter myself, therefore, that you will accept the present advice.

'I have the honour to be, with the most perfect consideration, your greatness's most humble and obedient servant,

'C. ERSKINE.

'No. 42, St. Mary-le bonne street.
London, Sept. 22, 1801.'

On Monday, Sept. 28, the whole of the prelates delivered to Mr. Erskine their several letters, the contents of which are very simple.—To the seventeen bishops who composed the first meeting is to be added the bishop of Rhodes, who is just arrived from Scotland. The bishop of Troyes, who was on an excursion in Holland, did not arrive till yesterday. His opinion, long known from a publication, is in favour of their resigning. Thus, among nineteen French bishops who have taken refuge in London, five are decidedly conformists. The bishop of Moulins has no voice, because he has not yet been consecrated. The vote of the bishop of Leon being reserved for that of the eventual majority of the entire episcopal corps dispersed in different countries, cannot be put upon the list of non-conformists. From all this it results, that two-thirds of them are against the resignation, but some reduction may take place in this majority, when it shall be verified at Rome or at Paris, if the cardinal legate be authorised to open the letters, as some of the motives, which fixed the determination of the non-conformist, are of a nature not to be modified.

Translation from the Latin of the Letter written by the thirteen French Bishops, resident in London, to the Pope, in answer to his Brief of the 15th of August, 1801.—Dated October instant, 1801.

'We will not conceal from your holiness the heavy anxiety which pressed upon our minds, when first we received the letter of your holiness, dated on the 15th of August, 1801, in the second year of your pontificate; which is, indeed, so great, that, as we, at all times, thought nothing more incumbent on us, and had nothing more at heart than zealously to promote as far as in our power, your paternal councils, yet they should find us now not only uncertain and fluctuating, but, in a duty of this nature, compel us to be even reluctant to obey.

'Such is the force of these letters, that if that be done which they enjoin, all the episcopal sees in France will be left vacant at one and the same point of time. But by what means the abdication of all the churches of that most extensive empire is to produce, throughout France, the salutary effect of the unity, and of preserving or restoring the catholic religion, your holiness has not informed us, nor, to confess the truth, do we, as yet, sufficiently foresee. Truly the very experience of all the calamities with which our country has been afflicted many years, sufficiently shows that it is not without reason we dread that, by this voluntary and universal abdication of all the churches, more grievous inconveniences would result to the catholic cause; for which, to acquaint your holiness with the means of prevention, belongs only to a convocation of all the bishops of the Gallican church.

'Nor, indeed, do we mean to say this, as if it would seem grievous or a hardship upon us, to resign our rank in those melancholy and troublesome times, but rather, that it would as much as possible conduce to the private happiness of each of us, to have our infirmity relieved from so great a burthen, if we may still think of any thing of happiness or consolation with minds broken by the weight of so many misfortunes. But the line of our duty seems, to us, folly to require that we should never suffer that tie which has

bound us, and the churches immediately committed, by the providence of the moſt great and good God, to our care, to be broken.

'We earneſtly beſeech your holineſs, that, in ſome writing to be ſpeedily drawn up, we may be permitted to diſcloſe and enter ſomewhat more at large into the arguments upon which we thought right to act in this manner, and the grounds of our reſolution. In the mean time, greatly confiding in the paternal affection of your holineſs toward us, we hope it will ſo happen that nothing further will be determined in this buſineſs before you ſhall, in your conſummate equity and prudence, weigh the reaſons upon which your children ſhall plead their cauſe before their moſt pious father.

'Proſtrate at the knees of your holineſs, moſt ardently we invoke the apoſtolic benediction of your holineſs,

The moſt devoted and dutiful ſons—

Narbonne,	Nayon,
Angouleme,	Perigueux,
Arras,	St. Pol de Leon,
Avranches,	Vannes,
Lombes,	Uſez,
Montpellier,	Rhodes,
Nantes,	Moulins*.

* Nominated in 1791.

INTELLIGENCE FROM EGYPT.

Downing-ſtreet, Sept. 26, 1801.

BY letters received yeſterday, dated the 26th of Auguſt, from the Earl of Elgin, and General Hutchinſon, the 25th of July, it appears that the number of the French army which embarked at Roſetta, after the ſurrender of Cairo, was 12,700.

Our army was ſickly, but few had died; among the indiſpoſed were generals Hutchinſon, Craddock, and Doyle.

General Baird was expected at Cairo the firſt week in Auguſt, with the firſt diviſion of the Indian army.

The troops from England had not arrived, but were meant to proceed againſt Alexandria.

Menou had refuſed to capitulate, though his army was in want of bread, flour, oil, and wine.

Mr. Motz, the commiſſary-general, we are ſorry to learn, is dead.

Porto Ferrajo holds out. The troops were all embarked on board the 8th of Auguſt.

From the London Gazette, Oct. 3.

Downing-ſtreet, Oct. 2.

DISPATCHES, of which the following are extracts, have been received from his Excellency the Earl of Elgin, his Majeſty's Ambaſſador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary to the Sublime Porte, by the Right Hon. Lord Hawkeſbury, one of his Majeſty's Principal Secretaries of State.

Extract of a Diſpatch from Lord Elgin to Lord Hawkeſbury, dated Conſtantinople, Sept. 6, Midnight.

I congratulate your lordſhip moſt ſincerely, on the intelligence which I have this moment received by the annexed letter from Sir John H. Hutchinſon.

Extract of a Letter from Sir John Hely Hutchinſon, K.B. to the Earl of Elgin, dated Head quarters, Camp before Alexandria, Aug. 27.

I juſt ſeize the opportunity of a meſſenger going to Conſtantinople, (diſpatched by the captain pacha,) to inform your excellency, that general Menou offered laſt night to capitulate for the town and forts of Alexandria, and demanded an armiſtice of three days for the purpoſe of arranging the terms of the capitulation; this I have granted accordingly.

London Gazette Extraordinary, Oct. 22.

Downing-ſtreet, Oct. 21, 1801.

A DISPATCH, of which the following is a copy, was this day received (in duplicate) at the office of the Right Hon. Lord Hobart, one of his Majeſty's Principal Secretaries of State:

Head-quarters, Camp before Alexandria, Sept. 5.

My Lord,

I have now the ſatisfaction to inform your lordſhip, that the forts and town of Alexandria have ſurrendered to his majeſty's troops, who, on the 2d inſt. took poſſeſſion of the entrenched camp, the heights above Pompey's Pillar, the Redoubts du Bain, and the Fort Triangular. By the capitulation, the garriſon are to be embarked for France in the courſe of ten days, provided the ſhipping is in a ſtate of preparation to receive them.

The operations againſt the enemy's works commenced on the 17th of Auguſt.

Major general Coote embarked with a ſtrong corps on the Inundation, in the

night between the 16th and 17th of Auguſt. He effected his landing to the weſtward of Alexandria, with little or no oppoſition, and immediately inveſted the ſtrong caſtle of Marabout, ſituate at the entrance of the weſtern harbour of Alexandria.

On the eaſt ſide of the town two attacks were made to get poſſeſſion of ſome heights in front of the entrenched poſition of the enemy. I entruſted the conduct of the attack againſt their right to major-general Craddock; and that againſt their left to major-general Moore. Thoſe two officers perfectly executed my intentions, and performed the ſervice committed to their care with much preciſion and ability. The action was neither obſtinate or ſevere, and our loſs is but ſmall; but it afforded one more opportunity to diſplay the promptneſs of Britiſh officers and the heroiſm of Britiſh ſoldiers.

A part of general Doyle's brigade, the 30th regiment, but under the immediate command of colonel Spencer, had taken poſſeſſion of a hill in front of the enemy's right. General Menau, who was in perſon in that part of the French entrenched camp directly oppoſite to our poſt, ordered about 600 men to make a ſortie to drive us from our poſition. The enemy advanced in column, with fixed bayonets, and without firing a ſhot, till they got very cloſe to the 30th regiment, to whom colonel Spencer gave an immediate order to charge, though they did not conſiſt of more than 200 men; he was obeyed with a ſpirit and a determination worthy the higheſt panegyric.—The enemy were driven back to their entrenchments in the greateſt confuſion; they had many killed and wounded, and ſeveral taken priſoners.

On the night, between the 18th and 22th, major general Coote opened batteries againſt the caſtle of Marabout; an attack was alſo made from the ſea by ſeveral Turkiſh corvettes, and the launches and boats of the fleet, under the guidance of the hon. captain Cochrane; great perſeverance and exertions were required to get up heavy guns through a difficult and almoſt impracticable country: but the troops executed this painful and arduous ſervice with ſuch zeal and continued firmneſs, that the fort capitulated in the night of the 21ſt; the garriſon conſiſted of about 180 men, and were commanded by a chef de brigade.

On the morning of the 22d, major-general Coote marched from Marabout, to attack a ſtrong corps poſted in front, in order to cover the approach to Alexandria; the managements of that excellent officer appeared to have been able and judicious, and were attended with the moſt complete ſucceſs; he drove the enemy every where, though ſtrongly poſted, and in a country which oppoſed uncommon obſtacles to the progreſs of troops. The French ſuffered extremely in the action, and retreated in much confuſion, leaving their wounded and ſeven pieces of cannon behind them.

On the 24th, batteries were opened againſt the Redoubt de Bain; and on the 25th, at night, major general Coote ſurprized the enemy's advanced poſts, when ſeven officers and 50 men were taken priſoners; this ſervice was gallantly performed by lieutenant-colonel Smith, with the 1ſt battalion of the 20th regiment, and a ſmall detachment of the dragoons, under the command of lieut. Kelly, of the 26th. The enemy endeavoured to regain poſſeſſion of the ground from which they had been driven, but were repulſed with loſs.

On the morning of the 26th we opened four batteries on each ſide of the town, againſt the entrenched camp of the French, which ſoon ſilenced their fire, and induced them to withdraw many of their guns.

On the 27th, in the evening, general Menou ſent an aid-de camp to requeſt an armiſtice for three days, in order to give time to prepare a capitulation, which, after ſome difficulties and delays, was ſigned on the 2d of September.

I have the honour to encloſe you a copy of the capitulation, and alſo a liſt of the number of perſons for whom the enemy have required ſhipping: by this it appears, that the total of the garriſon of Alexandria conſiſted of upward of eight thouſand ſoldiers, and one thouſand three hundred ſailors.

This arduous and important ſervice has at length been brought to a concluſion. The exertions of individuals have been ſplendid and meritorious. I regret that the bounds of a diſpatch will not allow me to ſpecify the whole, or to mention the name of every perſon who has diſtinguiſhed himſelf in the public ſervice. I have received the greateſt ſupport and aſſiſtance from the general officers of the army. The conduct of the troops of every deſcription has been exemplary in the higheſt degree: there has been much to applaud and nothing to reprehend; their order and regularity in the camp have been as conſpicuous as their courage in the field. To the quarter-maſter-general,

lieutenant-colonel Anſtruther, I owe much for his unwearied induſtry and zeal in the public ſervice, and for the aid, advice, and co-operation, which he has at all times afforded me. Brigadier-general Lawſon, who commanded the artillery, and captain Bryce, the chief engineer, have both great merit in their different departments. The local ſituation of Egypt preſents obſtacles of a moſt ſerious kind to military operations on an extended ſcale. The ſkill and perſeverance of thoſe two officers have overcome difficulties which at firſt appeared almoſt inſurmountable.

Lieutenant-colonel Lindenthal, who has always acted with the Turks, deſerves my utmoſt acknowledgments: his activity and diligence have been unremitted, and he has introduced among them an order, and regularity which does him the higheſt honour.

During the courſe of the long ſervice on which we have been engaged, lord Keith has at all times given me moſt able aſſiſtance and counſel. The labour and fatigue of the navy have been continued and exceſſive: it has not been one day or one week, but for months together. In the bay of Aboukir, on the new inundation, and on the Nile, for one hundred and ſixty miles, they have been employed without intermiſſion, and have ſubmitted to many privations with a cheerfulneſs and patience highly creditable to them and advantageous to the public ſervice.

Sir Sydney Smith had originally the command of the ſeamen who landed from the fleet; he continued on ſhore till after the capture of Roſetta, and returned on board the Tigre a ſhort time before the appearance of admiral Gantheaume's ſquadron on the coaſt. He was preſent in the three actions of the 8th, 13th, and 21ſt of March, when he diſplayed that ardour of mind for the ſervice of his country, and that noble intrepidity, for which he has ever been ſo conſpicuous. Captain Stevenſon, of the Europa, ſucceeded him, and I have every reaſon to be ſatisfied with his zeal and conduct. The crews of the gun-boats diſplayed great gallantry, under his guidance, in the new inundation; and much approbation is alſo due to the naval officers who acted under his orders.

Captain Preſsland, of the Regulus, has had the direction for ſome months paſt, of all Greek ſhips in our employment, and of thoſe belonging to the Commiſſariat. He has been active, zealous, and indefatigable, and merits my warmeſt approbation. I muſt, therefore, beg leave to recommend this old and meritorious officer to your lordſhip's protection.

Allow me to expreſs a humble hope, that the army in Egypt have gratified the warmeſt wiſhes and expectations of their country. To them, every thing is due; and to me, nothing. It was my fate to ſucceed a man who created ſuch a ſpirit and eſtabliſhed ſuch a diſcipline among them, that little has been left me to perform, except to follow his maxims, and to endeavour to imitate his conduct.

This diſpatch will be delivered to your lordſhip by col. Abercromby, an officer of conſiderable ability, and worthy of the great name which he bears. He will one day, I truſt, emulate the talents of his never-ſufficiently to be lamented father.

I have the honour to be, &c.

J HELY HUTCHINSON.

[Here follow the articles of capitulation.]

Camp, Weſt of Alexandria,

Sir, Auguſt 23d, 1801.

Capt. Cochrane, with ſeven ſloops of war, having entered into the weſtern harbour of Alexandria on the evening of the 21ſt inſt. and anchored on my left flank, I immediately determined to move forward, and take as advanced a poſition near the town of Alexandria as prudence and ſecurity would permit.

The neceſſary arrangements having been made in the morning of the 22d, the troops advanced againſt the enemy, who was ſtrongly poſted upon a ridge of high hills, having his right flank ſecured by two heavy guns, and his left by two batteries containing three more, with many field-pieces placed in the intervals of his line.

The army moved through the ſand hills in three columns, the guards forming two upon the right near the lake, and major gen. Ludlow's brigade the third upon the left, having the 1ſt battalion of the 27th regiment in advance; major gen. Finch's brigade compoſed a reſerve, and was deſtined to give its ſupport wherever it might be required.

In this manner, having our field artillery with the advanced guard, the troops continued to move forward with the greateſt coolneſs and regularity, under a very heavy fire of cannon and ſmall arms, forcing the enemy to retreat conſtantly before them, and driving them to their preſent poſition within the walls of Alexandria.

Major generals Ludlow, earl of Cavan, and Finch, upon this, as upon all other occaſions, have given me all poſſible ſupport, and deſerve every commendation for the preciſion and regularity with which they led on their reſpective columns.

The exertions of the captains commanding the ſhips of war upon our left, and of the officers commanding the gun-boats upon our right, were attended with the beſt effect; their continued and unremitting fire kept the enemy in check.

To capt. Cochrane I feel extremely obliged, for his zeal and conſtant readineſs to afford every aſſiſtance in his power. Capt. Stevenſon, who commanded the gun-boats upon the lake, alſo calls for my earneſt approbation of his conduct.

Permit me, ſir, to repeat to you the intrepid and gallant behaviour of the whole of the troops during the affair of yeſterday, which laſted from ſix until ten o'clock in the morning. Their bravery was only equalled by the cool and regular manner in which they advanced under a ſevere and heavy cannonade. Happy am I to add that our loſs is only trifling, when compared to the advantages we have gained, and the difficulties we had to ſurmount in a country, which at every ſtep, afforded the enemy the means of making the moſt deſperate reſiſtance.

The loſs of the enemy muſt have been conſiderably greater than ours. It is impoſſible for me to aſcertain the numbers. Seven pieces of heavy ordnance were left behind by the French in the hurry of their retreat, and have fallen into our hands.

I feel much indebted to lieut. col. Duncan, quartermaſter general, for his judicious arrangements, and for his conduct during the whole of yeſterday; he deſerves my ſincere thanks.

Incloſed I have the honour to tranſmit a return of the killed and wounded, &c.

I have the honour to be, &c.

(Signed) EYRE COOTE, maj. gen.

(A true copy.)

JAMES KEMPT, lieut. col. and ſecretary.

To lieut. gen. the hon. ſir J. Hely Hutchinſon, &c.

[A ſecond letter from general Coote gives an account of the ſurrender of fort Marabout. The garriſon were compelled to ſurrender priſoners of war. The articles of capitulation are of little moment.]

Camp, Weſt of Alexandria, Auguſt 26.

SIR,

Being anxious to puſh my piquets upon the left as far as poſſible toward the enemy's advanced work, the redoubt de Bain, I directed lieut. col. Smith, with the 1ſt battalion of the 20th regiment, aſſiſted with a ſmall detachment of the 26th light dragoons, commanded by lieut. Kelly, to attack and drive in the French outpoſts upon the right of their poſition. He was to be ſupported by a battalion of infantry diſpoſed for that purpoſe on the ſand hills.

Soon after dark laſt night, lieut. col. Smith commenced the attack by turning the left of the enemy's picquets, and ſcouring the hills as he advanced.

The cool and ſpirited conduct of that officer and the corps under his command, as alſo the detachment of the 26th dragoons, is well deſerving of praiſe; not a man attempted to load, and the whole was effected by the bayonet.—The loſs of the enemy in this affair amounted to upward of 100 men, killed, wounded, and taken; of the latter I incloſe the return.

This ſervice was performed on our ſide with the loſs of only three men ſlightly wounded; and has placed me in a ſituation to erect a battery within about 600 yards of redoubt de Bain.

The enemy, however, extremely exaſperated at our ſucceſs, made ſeveral attempts to regain the ground he had loſt; with this view he kept up a very heavy fire of cannon and muſketry, for about an hour; when, finding all his endeavours ineffectual, he retired, leaving us peaceful poſſeſſors of the advantage we had gained in the early part of the night.

Incloſed is a return of our loſs in the latter part of the affair. I have the honour to be, &c.

(Signed) EYRE COOTE, maj. gen.

(A true copy.)

JAMES KEMPT, lieut. col. and ſecretary.

To lieut. gen. the hon. ſir J. Hely Hutchinſon, &c.

Return of the killed, wounded, and miſſing, of the army under the command of lieut. gen. ſir John Hely Hutchinſon, K. B. at the ſiege of Alexandria. Camp, Auguſt 29.

Aug. 17. Driving in the enemy's advanced poſts.

Total.—9 rank and file, killed; 2 officers, 3 ſerjeants, 39 rank and file, wounded.

Rank and names of officers wounded.

30th reg.—Lieut. Mantergh.

Rifle corps.—Enſign Tramlach.

Aug. 22. Major gen. Coote's corps, advancing to blockade the weſtern ſide of Alexandria.

Total.—3 rank and file, killed; 1 officer, 1 ſerjeant, 40 rank and file, wounded.

Officer wounded.

25th foot.—Lieut. Hawkins.

N. B. 2 horſes, killed.

Aug. 23. A falſe alarm.

30th foot.—1 rank and file, killed; 1 rank and file, wounded.

Aug. 25. In an affair at the advanced poſts of the weſtern diviſion of the army.

Total.—1 horſe, killed; 3 officers, 1 drummer, 33 rank and file, wounded.

Rank and names of officers wounded.

26th light dragoons.—Lieut. Kelly.

54th foot, 2d bat.—Lieut Samuel Predam, and lieut. Aylmer, ſlightly.

N. B. Lieut. Davids, of the royal artillery, wounded on the 26th of June. On duty in front of the lines.

General Total.—13 rank and file, 3 horſes, killed; 6 officers, 4 ſerjeants, 1 drummer, 113 rank and file, wounded.

JOHN ABERCROMBY. adj. gen.

NAVAL INTELLIGENCE.

From the London Gazette, Oct. 17.

Admiralty Office, Oct. 16.

Copy of a letter from admiral lord Keith, K. B. commander in chief of his majeſty's ſhips and veſſels in the Mediterranean, to Evan Nepean, eſq. dated Foudroyant, Bay of Aboukir, July 10.

Sir,

THE incloſed letter from captain Pulling, of his majeſty's ſloop the Kangaroo, conveys to you, for the information of their lordſhips, his detail of a ſpirited and ſucceſsful attack made by that ſloop and the Speedy on a Spaniſh convoy anchored on the coaſt, and protected by a battery of twelve guns, and a conſiderable force of armed veſſels, which appears to have been executed with much reſolution and courage.

I truſt that their lordſhips will honour with their approbation the ſpirit of enterpriſe which the officers and men engaged in this ſervice have evinced; and while I have the power of expreſſing to their lordſhips my ſatisfaction with the zealous and active exertions of capt. Pulling, ſo ſoon after his arrival on this ſtation, I have moſt ſincere pleaſure in tranſmitting to them his teſtimony to the continued meritorious conduct of which capt. lord Cochrane, and the officers and crew of the Speedy, have lately furniſhed ſo exemplary a proof.

I have the honour to be, &c.

KEITH.

His majeſty's ſloop Kangaroo, one cable's length from the ſhore and two from the town of Oropeſo, 10th of June, three in the morning.

My lord,

I have the pleaſure to inform your lordſhip that, cruiſing off Barcelona on the 1ſt inſt. purſuant to orders from capt. Dixon, of his majeſty's ſhip Genereux, and falling in with his majeſty's ſhip Speedy, right hon. lord Cochrane, commander, we ſpoke a Minorquin privateer, who gave information that a Spaniſh convoy, conſiſting of twelve ſail and five armed veſſels, had paſſed to the windward three days before: lord Cochrane agreeing with me as to the practicability of overtaking them, we went in purſuit, and yeſterday morning got ſight of them at anchor under the battery of Oropeſo. When having ſo able and gallant an officer as his lordſhip to lead into the bay, I heſitated not a moment to make the attack: we approached within half gunſhot of the enemy by noon with both brigs, and came to an anchor, though oppoſed by the battery, which is a large ſquare tower, and appears to have twelve guns, a xebec, of twenty guns, and three gun boats, all of which kept up a briſk fire until two o'clock, when it conſiderably decreaſed, but again recommenced, encouraged by a felucca, of twelve guns, and two gun-boats, that came to their aſſiſtance: by half paſt three the xebec and one of the gun-boats ſunk, and ſhortly after another gun boat ſhared the ſame fate. The tower, with the remaining gun-boats, aſſiſted by the three in the offing, continued to annoy us on both ſides till about half paſt ſix, when the fire of the whole ſlackened; and on the Kangaroo cutting her cables and running nearer to the tower, the gun-boats in the offing fled, and by ſeven the tower was ſilenced. We were annoyed by a heavy fire of muſquetry in different directions till midnight, during which time the boats of both brigs were employed in cutting out the veſſels that were found afloat, under the direction of Mr. Thomas Foulerton, the firſt lieutenant of the Kangaroo, aſſiſted by lieut. Warburton, of the Speedy, the hon. M. A. Cochrane, and meſſrs. Dean and Taylor, midſhipmen; they ſucceeded in bringing out three brigs laden with wine, rice, and bread. When lord Cochrane, with his uſual zeal, took the ſame officers under his command, and went in ſhore again in

the hope of bringing away more, but the remainder were either ſunk or driven on ſhore. I have here to lament the loſs of Mr. Thomas Taylor, midſhipman, a valuable young man, who was killed by a muſket ball while on this ſervice.

I cannot expreſs myſelf ſufficiently grateful to lord Cochrane for his aſſiſtance during this long conteſt, as well as on the day before, when we found it neceſſary, for the honour of his Britannic majeſty's arms, to blow up the tower of Almanara, mounting two braſs four-pounders, which would not ſurrender, though repeatedly ſummoned. I muſt alſo acknowledge the ſervices of lieut. Foulerton, and beg leave to recommend him ſtrongly to your lord ſhip's notice; he, with the other lieutenant, Mr. Thomas Brown Thompſon, whom I alſo feel indebted to, has been ſlightly wounded; Mr. Thomas Tongeau, acting maſter, Mr. John Richards, Purſer (who volunteered his ſervices on deck,) on this occaſion, as well as the officers and crews of both brigs, behaved as Britiſh officers and ſeamen are accuſtomed to do; the aſſiſtance of capt. Edward Drummond of the 60th regiment, who was a paſſenger on board, I alſo acknowledge with pleaſure.

Incloſed is a liſt of the killed and wounded on board the Kangaroo. Lord Cochrane was a little ſinged, and received a bruiſe at the demolition of the tower Almanara, as did two of his men, but I am rejoiced to add, neither of them were materially hurt; and with the utmoſt ſurpriſe I have the pleaſure to find that the Speedy had not a man killed or wounded in the deſtruction of this convoy, though from ſituation and diſtance, equally expoſed to the enemy's fire: we are now getting under weigh for Minorca, with the prizes; the ſloops are not much damaged, and fortunately for the enemy the ammunition of both is expended, otherwiſe I am confident, that in a ſhort time the tower would be razed to its foundation. I have the honour to be, &c.

G. C. PULLING.

Right hon. lord Keith, admiral of the blue, &c.

Killed.—Mr. Thomas Taylor, midſhipman.

Wounded.—William Beatty, James Nightingale, James Reynolds, Thomas Thompſon, John Barrey, ſeamen, ſeverely; lieuts. Foulerton and Thompſon, ſlightly; William Williams, Thomas Fitz Gibbons, ſeamen, ſlightly; Thomas Baldwin, marine, ſlightly.

SHIPS captured from the ENEMY.

L'ENFANT du Carnival, 14 guns, by the Defence.

L'Adel, 12 guns. and La Glorie, 10 guns, by the Albatroſs.

La Tereſa, 18 guns, by the Guachapin.

THEATRE.

MRS. Billington, after an abſence of ſeven years, made her *entré* (October 3,) at Covent-garden theatre, in the opera of Artaxerxes. She diſplayed a power and variety of voice equal to her former happieſt moments; but ſhe exceeded every one of her paſt exhibitions, in depth of ſcience, refinement of taſte, and appropriate feeling and geſticulation. It is too feeble a panegyric to ſay, that in the memory of the beſt judges and oldeſt amateurs, ſhe is the moſt accompliſhed Engliſh ſinger this country can boaſt.

Her bravura air, and her 'Water parted from the Sea,' were encored with an univerſal call.

Mr. Weichſell (Mrs. Billington's brother) led the band in a ſtile of ſuperior power and judgment.

A new Comedy, entitled INTEGRITY, was performed at Covent-garden theatre, on Thurſday, October 8.

The principal characters were thus repreſented:

Herman, Mr. H. Siddons; Albert, Mr. Brunton; Edward, Mr. H. Johnſton; Woolſtan, Mr. Murray; Uncle of Albert, Mr. Cory; Waiter, Mr. Blanchard. The Mother of Herman, Miſs Chapman; Juliet, Miſs Murray; Helen, Mrs. H. Johnſton; Maid, Mrs. Mattocks.

The ſcene appears, from the character of the coſtume, to be laid in Germany. It opens with a family groupe, conſiſting of Herman, a young lawyer, his mother, and ſiſter Helen, who are dependent on him for their ſupport. He is the hero of the piece, and from his tried integrity it takes its name. The means by which his rectitude of mind is put to the teſt form the principal ſcenes. He is repreſented as having ſucceſsfully pleaded the cauſe of Wooliton, a brave, but diſtreſſed ſoldier. His celebrity next induces a wicked uncle to ſeek his aſſiſtance to defraud his nephew Roland of his fortune. This propoſal he

ſpurns with contempt, under circumſtances of the ſeverest preſſure. They are interrupted by the arrival of Albert, the lover of Helen, who proves to be the very Roland whom the uncle ſought to diſinherit: he had aſſumed the name of Albert, to avoid the ſearch of his father, from whoſe unnatural treatment he had fled. This diſcovery completely deſtroys the uncle's hopes, who retires, and in revenge procures the baniſhment of Herman and Albert, upon a falſe charge. Arrived at the boundaries, Herman is overtaken by Edward, a youthful friend, naturally good, but led aſtray by the vice and folly of the world. He brings him the reverſal of his ſentence, his innocence having been diſcovered, and conducts him to a neighbouring edifice. This proves to be the houſe of Juliet, a lady whom he had ſeen and loved in early youth, whoſe image had never been abſent from his mind, who had procured the reverſal of his ſentence, and who declares her love, and propoſes to put herſelf under his protection. Conceiving her a married woman, for ſuch ſhe was when he firſt ſaw her, he rejects the flattering offer. From this ſtate he is ſoon relieved, by an aſſurance of the death of her huſband, who was alſo the father of Albert. There is, therefore, no obſtacle to their happineſs, or that of Albert, in whoſe favour Edward, who was a lover of Helen, renounces his claim.

Mr. Siddons made his *entré* in the character of Herman, which he performed with great feeling and diſcrimination. He evinced throughout a perfect knowledge of the part. His reſemblance to his mother and uncle, Mrs. Siddons and Mr. John Kemble, both in voice and countenance, is very ſtrong. His action is free from embarraſſment, and he ſeems fully acquainted with the minutiæ of ſtage buſineſs. In the paſſages which required delicacy of expreſſion he was particularly ſucceſsful.

The Prologue, which was delivered by Mr. Brunton, has little to recommend it; but the Epilogue, admirably ſpoken by Miſs Murray and Mrs. Mattocks, abounds in pleaſant alluſions.

Integrity, was favourably received, and announced for a ſecond performance with the general plaudits of a faſhionable and crowded houſe.

On Wedneſday, Oct. 14th, at the aforementioned Theatre, a new Muſical Farce was brought forward, under the title of THE ESCAPES.

The ſcene lies in France, and the events of the piece are ſuppoſed to have happened during the adminiſtration of cardinal Mazarine, in that country.

Count Armand, a member of the parliament of Paris, diſapproving of ſome meaſures of the cardinal, preſumed to expreſs his cenſure; but the reſentment of the miniſter being ſeconded by his power, the count and his wife are obliged to fly. A proclamation had been made, ſetting a reward of 6000 crowns upon the count, taken alive or dead. In this ſituation they are protected by Michelli, a water bearer. The cardinal's Italian guards, eager for the reward, track the count to Michelli's houſe. By the advice of Michelli, the count puts on an old night-cap, gets into bed, and paſſes for the dying father of the water-bearer, and Conſtantia, the wife of the count, for the water-bearer's daughter. Antonio, the water-bearer's ſon, is going to a neighbouring village to be married, and the counteſs takes the paſs intended for Antonio's ſiſter, and accompanies him. The deſcription of the paſs does not correſpond with her perſon, and ſhe is oppoſed in her hopes of getting over the draw-bridge. The officer, however, at length, ſuffers her to paſs. Michelli then appears with his water-carriage, but is not ſuffered to paſs the bridge. The ſoldiers, ſuſpecting that he knows the retreat of the count, offers him 1000 crowns to diſcover it. He pretends to comply, perſuades them to go into the guard-room, and ſelect all the determined men they can find, to aſſiſt in ſeizing the count. While they are gone, he opens his caſk, which contains the count, who iſſues forth, and paſſes the frontier. Antonio, the water-bearer's ſon, leads the count and his lady through bye-ways to the cottage of his intended father-in-law. The ſoldiers, ſtill in purſuit of the count, reach the ſame place. In this extremity, the count hides himſelf in a hollow tree. Two of the ſoldiers, who were ſmitten by the counteſs, ſuppoſing her to be Michelli's daughter, lie in wait for her, and when ſhe comes with a baſket of food for her huſband, who remains in the tree, they ſeize her with the intention of brutal violence. Her ſcreams induce her huſband to break from his concealment, and he is conſequently diſcovered and taken into cuſtody. As the ſoldiers are dragging him away, Michelli appears with a pardon, and the piece, of courſe, has a happy concluſion.

The audience heard the opera with attention and applauſe, though ſome ſmall degree of diſapprobation was manifeſted at the abruptneſs of its concluſion.

FRANCE.

Extract from the Regiſters of the Deliberations of the Conſuls of the Republic, Paris, Oct. 4.

THE conſuls of the republic having heard the council of ſtate, decree—

1ſt. That on the 9th of November next, there ſhall be celebrated, throughout the whole of the republic, a ſolemn feſtival on account of the ſigning of peace between England and France.

2. The miniſter of the interior is charged with the execution of this decree.

(Signed) BONAPARTE,
H. B. MARET, ſec. ſtate.

Decree of Oct. 10.

Bonaparte, firſt conſul of the republic, decrees:—

Article 1. Citizen Joſeph Bonaparte, counſellor of ſtate, be appointed miniſter plenipotentiary of the republic at the congreſs of Amiens.

2. The miniſter for foreign affairs is charged with the execution of the preſent decree.

The firſt conſul,
(Signed) BONAPARTE.

Paris, Oct. 12.

Peace between the French republic and his majeſty the emperor of Ruſſia having been concluded, and ſigned at Paris by the miniſter for foreign affairs and M. Le Comte de Marcoff, the ratifications were exchanged yeſterday by the reſpective plenipotentiaries.

The Miniſter for Foreign Affairs to the Prefect of Police.

I have the honour to acquaint you, citizen Prefect, that a treaty of peace between the French republic and his majeſty the emperor of Ruſſia, having been ſigned here by M. Le Comte de Marcoff and myſelf, the ratifications of it have been exchanged this day.

I requeſt you will cauſe this pacification to be proclaimed in the uſual manner.

I ſalute you,
(Signed) C. M. TALLEYRAND.
(A true copy) The Prefect.
(Signed) DUBOIS.

This event was proclaimed in the evening by torch light, and with great ſolemnity, by all the commiſſioners of police, in the ſquares and public places, amid the acclamations of all the citizens.

Paris, Oct. 18.

Yeſterday at noon, a diſcharge of ſixty pieces of artillery announced the ſignature of the preliminaries of peace between the French republic and the Sublime Porte.

Paris, Oct. 20.

The conſuls of the republic, on the report of the miniſter of war, decree as follows:

1. The artillery and fortifications of the military poſitions all along the frontiers of the republic ſhall be placed on the peace eſtabliſhment.

2. The miniſter at war is charged with the execution of the preſent decree.

The chief conſul,
(Signed) BONAPARTE.
H. B. MARET, ſec. of ſtate.

HISTORICAL CHRONICLE.

SEPTEMBER 29.

YESTERDAY morning, the remains of the gallant captain Parker, were interred in the chapel burying-ground at Deal, with all the honours due to his rank and diſtinguiſhed character as a naval officer. The ſhips of war hoiſted their colours half maſt high, and topped up their yards, forming a St. Andrew's croſs, as emblematical of diſtreſs. The funeral commenced at twelve o'clock from the naval ſtore-yard, and was attended by the medical ſtaff, admirals Lutwidge and Nelſon, with their ſecretaries, the officers of the Derbyſhire militia, and a firing party of two hundred privates, the officers of artillery from the forts, and the commanders of the ſhips of war in the Downs. The body was carried by ſix ſeamen, dreſſed in blue jackets and white trowſers, and the pall-bearers were maſters and commanders; the Derby band accompanied the proceſſion, playing a ſolemn dirge, and the interment was conducted with a ſolemnity which made a deep impreſſion on the immenſe concourſe of ſpectators. His majeſty's ſhip Amazon fired minute guns during the burial, which laſted nearly an hour.

OCTOBER 1.

Monday, meſſrs. Rawlins and Cox, the new ſheriffs for London and Middleſex, were ſworn into office at Guildhall, after which they dined at the London tavern, accompanied by ſeveral aldermen, recorder, &c. They were attended by

the city officers, and a full band of muſic. Their carriages are very neat, and the liveries ſuperb; that of the former is blue and ſilver, and the latter, white and gold.

Tueſday, at one o'clock, a common hall was held at Guildhall, for the election of a new lord-mayor for the year enſuing. The names of aldermen Newman, Macauley, ſir John Eamer, Hearne, Price, Perring, Cadell, Perchard, and Flower, being read from the huſtings, the greateſt ſhew of hands took place in favour of Mr. alderman Newman. Sir John Eamer had alſo a conſiderable number of hands in his favour. Theſe two gentlemen having been returned to the court of aldermen, they decided in favour of ſir John Eamer by a a majority of ten to ſix. He attempted ſeveral times to addreſs the livery, but the clamour of diſapprobation was ſo ſtrong as to render his efforts unſucceſsful. Alderman Newman obtained a hearing, and attributed his diſappointment to the prejudices entertained of him for poſſeſſing political principles of the ſame nature as thoſe which had been acknowledged by Mr. alderman Coombe.

Wedneſday, the new proceſſion took place on the ſwearing in of the new ſheriffs in the court of exchequer. After the ceremony was over, they returned in ſtate to partake of an elegant dinner.

OCTOBER 12.

The happy and unexpected event of peace, has had the effect of electricity throughout Great Britain. The provincial papers are replete with expreſſions of joy and congratulations on the occaſion; illuminations, and every demonſtration of ſatisfaction and loyalty were every where made public. The firſt notice of the preliminaries having been ſigned, paſſed through the country by means of inſcriptions, &c. fixed on the outſide of the mail coaches, which was the moſt judicious, becauſe the moſt expeditious means of giving the event publicity through the country.

In London, the ratification, has produced the moſt general and voluntary demonſtrations that could be expreſſed of heart-felt ſatisfaction for peace, ſo unexpectedly and honourably obtained. The ſtreets were one continued blaze of light, and many beautiful and ſignificant tranſparent ſubjects were diſplayed. The following are among thoſe which deſerve particular notice: the Navy-office, Somerſet-houſe—G. R. and the anchor, &c. in variegated lamps. The Theatres with brilliant variegated lamps; inſcriptions Peace, and emblems of the Cornucopia, which, indeed, was the prevailing deſign. India houſe—G. R. with Peace in capitals, and a great number of lamps. Manſion houſe—the Crown and G. R. Guildhall—the Crown and G. R. with a ſmall tranſparency, the dove encompaſſed with olive. Exciſe-office—G. R. and Crown, with a number of lamps. Phœnix Fire-office—a tranſparency, Long live the King, Peace and Commerce. Poſt-office—a great number of lamps. Bank—a few lamps in ſome of the windows. The Lyceum—a tranſparency, Peace and Plenty ſurmounting War and Monopoly. Sir Vere Hunt's, corner of Parliament-ſtreet, facing Whitehall—France and Ireland, with England entwining the horn of plenty. The dukes of York and Portland had a number of flambeaus on the outer parapet walls. Oakley's furniture warehouſe, in Bond-ſtreet—diſplayed a good deſign, well executed, of Peace, Plenty, and Commerce. Orme's gallery—Britannia crowning a ſailor and Soldier Youth with Laurel. M. Otto, the agent of peace—the letters G. R. and F. R. with feſtoon ornaments in variegated lamps, and a tranſparent inſcription of peace and general happineſs.

During the rejoicings the moſt tremendous ſtorm of thunder, lightning, and rain came on, which ſoon diſperſed the crowds that were abroad.—The lightning preceded the thunder and rain full one hour, and was uncommonly vivid. The day had been unuſually fine, and warm for the ſeaſon of the year. The ſtorm laſted till toward three o'clock yeſterday morning.

OCTOBER 13.

Lately died at Briſtol, O'Brien, the famous Iriſh giant. He was eight feet ſix inches in height. This man, when he firſt began to derive a ſubſiſtence from the expoſure of his perſon to the public, was deeply affected by a ſenſe of humiliation, and often ſhed tears when, among the crowd whom curioſity attracted, any ſpectator treated him with reſpect. In time, however, all theſe tender feelings were entirely ſubdued, and he was latterly as much diſtinguiſhed for inſolent pride as he was before for modeſt dejection. Such tranſitions, however, are not uncommon in *great men*.

OCTOBER 14.

On Saturday Mr. Fox's Annual Election for Weſtminſter was celebrated, for the twenty-firſt time, at the Shakeſpeare tavern, Covent-garden.

The meeting was as numerous as upon any former occaſion, and it was impoſſible to obtain a place at the early hour of three o'clock.

Mr. Fox addreſſed the electors in a moſt argumentative and manly ſpeech. He obſerved, that amid all the calumnies and invectives with which he had been aſſailed on account of his political conduct, it was his peculiar conſolation and heartfelt ſatisfaction to find himſelf ſupported by opinions which he reverenced moſt—thoſe of his conſtituents. Had their petitions been attended to, the late diſaſtrous war would not have been productive of ſo many calamities. He ſincerely congratulated the country on the ratification of the preliminaries of peace. The war was radically bad, and the peace, ſuch as it was, he would maintain, was an event that ſhould inſpire a general ſentiment of approbation. It was, in his mind, a good peace, becauſe we loſt the object for which we were contending, namely, that of trenching upon, and annihilating, the univerſal rights of mankind. The late miniſtry never would have made a peace, and the preſent miniſters were entitled to the gratitude of the country for having reſtored tranquillity.

It was not then neceſſary to canvas the items of the treaty; but he would ſay, that the giving up of an iſland was not equal even to one hour's conflict. He had rejoiced at the late change of adminiſtration, on the ground that it would tend to the acceleration of peace, though he was free to confeſs that his hopes upon that ſubject had not been very ſanguine.

Mr. Fox entered into a variety of intereſting topics, in the courſe of a ſpeech, which laſted about half an hour, and which was warmly applauded.

Among the toaſts given were 'The independent Electors of Weſtminſter:' and 'May the Peace between Great Britain and the French Republic be permanent!'

Mr. Erſkine gave Mr. Fox, which was drank with acclamation.

OCTOBER 23.

Tueſday, the maſter and wardens of the company of bakers attended the lord-mayor at the manſion-houſe, to ſet the aſſize of bread, when his lordſhip, after inſpecting the mealweighers returns, ordered the price of bread to be reduced three aſſizes, or ſixpence in the peck loaf. The price of the quartern loaf is therefore eleven-pence halfpenny. When the lord-mayor ſaw the laſt returns of flour he expreſſed great diſapprobation at them, as he conceived ſome unfair means had been employed to create a falſe or nominal encreaſe average price. Two quartern loaves were produced before his lordſhip, one of which came from Newbury, and the other from Oxford, of the fineſt white flour, which coſt but eightpence the loaf. His lordſhip was of opinion (as we believe every other perſon muſt be) that there is a ſcandalous combination ſomewhere, to keep up the price of flour beyond its fair value and proportion.

OCTOBER 25.

Kilmarnock, Oct. 19. The magiſtrates of Kilmarnock, to prevent exaggerated accounts of a public calamity which happened yeſterday in the pariſh church here, and to quiet the minds of many at a diſtance, think it their duty, however painful, to give to the public the following melancholy particulars:—'At two o'clock, P M. when the congregation was nearly aſſembled for divine ſervice, an alarm was given that one of the galleries was falling, which, although unfounded, occaſioned ſuch crowds ſuddenly to attempt ruſhing out, that a great number of perſons, particularly upon the ſtairs of the eaſt and weſt ends of the church, were trampled under foot, of whom ſeveral were moſt unfortunately killed. The other perſons trampled upon are much hurt, and under the charge of ſkilful medical gentlemen, who were fortunately upon the ſpot. Every poſſible means were uſed to relieve the congregation, by the exertions of the magiſtrates, the royal Kilmarnock volunteers, and the humane inhabitants who had eſcaped from or were ready to enter the church, and many were ſaved by laddering the windows of the galleries. It will afford conſolation to the friends of thoſe who were hurt, to know that every thing will be done for their recovery and relief which humanity can accompliſh.

'ALEX. FOWLDS, magiſtrate,
'WM. GREGRORY, magiſtrate.'

OCTOBER 27.

The following is the communication from Mr. Addington to the chairman of the merchant's committee, on the ſubject of the convoy duty, which was ſtated to be taken off:—'The attorney and ſolicitor-general are of opinion, that the Act 38 Geo. III. ch. 71, muſt be conſidered no longer in force, but as having expired on the ſigning of the preliminary articles of peace with the French republic. The convoy duty will conſequently no longer be demanded.'

HURRICANE IN INDIA.

At many places on the Malabar and Coromandel coaſts, and in various diſtricts, a tempeſt of unuſual violence and

duration was experienced toward the end of October last.

Masulipatam, Oct. 30. 'On the 28th, about two P.M. a violent gale of wind, with rain, set in from the NW, which at seven in the evening came round to NE, from which point we were assailed by a most heavy storm of wind and rain. In less than an hour the south glacis was entirely covered with water, and, indeed, the greatest part of the fort completely inundated. The storm ceased about five o'clock the next morning, to the great joy of the suffering inhabitants, whose hardships are hardly to be described. On ascending the ramparts, I beheld all around me fallen houses, trees torn up by the roots, and large vessels on dry land; the smaller vessels were either sunk or stove to pieces, but I do not hear of more than two lives lost; they were natives, and were lost with a paddy boat near the bar. All the bridges are carried away, except the one at the main guard. The hurricane was equally severe all along the coast; and we much fear that Coringa, from its situation, is totally destroyed. Peddapatam, Golahpolam, and Samuldevi, are nearly destroyed. The excellent house at the latter place, which general Braithwaite had generously dedicated to the use of travellers, has suffered considerably by the storm.

Ongole, Oct. 29. We have experienced such heavy rain at Ongole, for the last twenty four days, that the surface of the country exhibits one entire sheet of water. On the 19th instant, at about ten minutes after four o'clock A.M. the wind blew a hurricane, when suddenly we felt a severe shock of an earthquake, which kept the earth in continued agitation for nearly a minute. It shook down many houses, but I believe no person was killed in consequence. At about eight o'clock last night the wind began to blow strongly, with rain; and in about two hours the wind and rain increased so violently, that the doors and windows were blown open, and dashed to atoms. In this dreadful situation it would have been adviseable to have quitted our houses for the open plain, but that was impossible, as no one could stand for a moment against the impetuosity of the hurricane, nor could an object be observed at a yard's distance. We trusted in this dilemma to Omnipotence for protection, and placing ourselves in the strongest situations we could think of, we continually heard the trees and walls falling around us. The incessant loud claps of thunder, the vivid lightning, the strength of the wind, and the uncommonly heavy rain, were such as the oldest inhabitants never before experienced. The wind blew from NE. and continued till two o'clock this morning, when we had an interval of calm till three o'clock, during which we were employed in endeavouring to extricate our cattle from the ruins of the fallen buildings.

At three o'clock the storm recommenced from the SE. and it possible with increased violence; and the houses being at this time all unroofed, we remained till day-break exposed to its utmost fury. When day light appeared, nothing but death and destruction caught the eye in every direction. The ground was covered with dead cattle, birds, and fallen houses and trees; even the largest banian trees have not escaped; indeed, there is scarcely a tree left in the whole district. It is melancholy to observe the devastation of villages, and the inhabitants labouring to extricate their families and cattle from the ruins.

His MAJESTY's most gracious SPEECH to both Houses of Parliament, on Thursday, October 29, 1801.

My Lords and Gentlemen,

I HAVE the satisfaction to acquaint you, that the important negociations, in which I was engaged at the close of the last session of parliament, are brought to a favourable conclusion. The differences with the Northern powers have been adjusted by a convention with the emperor of Russia, to which the kings of Denmark and Sweden have expressed their readiness to accede. The essential rights for which we contended are thereby secured, and provision is made that the exercise of them shall be attended with as little molestation as possible to the subjects of the contracting parties.

Preliminaries of peace have also been ratified between me and the French Republic, and I trust that this important arrangement, whilst it manifests the justice and moderation of my views, will also be found conducive to the substantial interests of this country, and honourable to the British character.—Copies of these papers shall forthwith be laid before you; and I earnestly hope that the transactions to which they refer will meet with the approbation of my parliament.

Gentlemen of the House of Commons,

I have directed such estimates to be prepared of the various demands for the pub-

lic ſervice, as appears to me to be beſt adapted to the ſituation in which we are now placed. It is painful to me to reflect, that proviſion cannot be made for defraying the expences which muſt unavoidably be continued, for a time, in different parts of the world, and for maintaining an adequate peace eſtabliſhment, without large additional ſupplies. You may, however, be aſſured, that all poſſible attention ſhall be paid to ſuch œconomical arrangements as may not be inconſiſtent with the great object of effectually providing for the ſecurity of all my dominions.

My Lords, and Gentlemen,

I cannot ſufficiently deſcribe the gratification and comfort I derive from the relief, which the bounty of Divine Providence has afforded to my people, by the abundant produce of the laſt harveſt. In contemplating the ſituation of the country at this important conjuncture, it is impoſſible for me to refrain from expreſſing the deep ſenſe I entertain of the temper and fortitude, which have been manifeſted by all deſcriptions of my faithful ſubjects, under the various and complicated difficulties with which they have had to contend.

The diſtinguiſhed valour and eminent ſervices of my forces by ſea and land, which, at no period, have been ſurpaſſed; the unprecedented exertions of the militia and fencibles, and the zeal and perſeverance of the yeomanry and volunteer corps of cavalry and infantry, are entitled to my warmeſt acknowledgments; and I am perſuaded, that you will join with me in reflecting, with peculiar ſatisfaction, on the naval and military operations of the laſt campaign, and on the ſucceſsful and glorious iſſue of the expedition to Egypt, which has been marked throughout by atchievements, tending, in their conſequences and by their example, to produce laſting advantage and honour to this country.

It is my firſt wiſh, and moſt fervent prayer, that my people may experience the reward they have ſo well merited, in a full enjoyment of the bleſſings of peace, in a progreſſive increaſe of the national commerce, credit, and reſources; and, above all, the undiſturbed poſſeſſion of their religion, laws, and liberties, under the ſafeguard and protection of that conſtitution, which it has been the great object of all our efforts to preſerve, and which it is our moſt ſacred duty to tranſmit unimpaired to our deſcendants.

BIRTH.

VISCOUNTESS Duncannon, a ſon.

MARRIAGES.

EDWARD Hilliard, eſq. of Cowley-houſe, Middleſex, to Mrs. Colborne, of Shredding-green, Bucks.

John Conway, eſq. to miſs Chriſtie, eldeſt daughter of James Chriſtie, eſq. of Pall-mall.

Rev. ſir John Head, bart. to miſs Walker, of Ruſſel-place.

Lieutenant-colonel Cockburn, eldeſt ſon of ſir James Cockburne, to the hon. Mariannat, Devereux, eldeſt daughter of lord Hereford.

T. Wynn, eſq. to the right hon. lady C. Bellaſyſe, eldeſt daughter of the earl Fauconberg.

Sir John Riggs Miller, bart. to miſs Beauchamp, of Park-place, St. James'.

Sir John Murray, bart. of Stanhope-ſtreet, to miſs Callander, eldeſt daughter of Adam Callander, eſq of New Cavendiſh-ſtreet.

Hon. George Irby, eldeſt ſon of lord Boſton, to miſs Rachael Ives Drake, daughter of W. Drake, jun. eſq.

DEATHS.

EARL of Howth, aged 72.

Captain E. T. Parker,

Captain Frederick, ſon of ſir John Frederick, bart.

Sir John Greſham, bart.

James Burrows, aged 78, and Mary Burrows, his wife, aged 78, both on the ſame day at Marſden chapel, near Colne.

Lady Anderſon, aged 73.

Alexander Morrilon, eſq. of Bognie, Scotland, aged 78.

William Langridge, of Lewes, aged 86.

William Herring, of Croydon, aged 81.

Hon. Richard Fitzroy, fourth ſon of the earl of Euſton.

Thomas Arthington, eſq. aged 74.

Mrs. Hunt, relict of the Rev. Rowland Hunt, D. D. late rector of Stoke Doyle, Northamptonſhire, in the 69th year of her age.

William Spearman, eſq. of Oxon, aged 84.

Right hon. lady E. Kemp.

Mrs. Packwood, of Priors Marſton, aged 90.

Lady of lord John Ruſſell.

Mrs. Joan Eliſabeth Knatchbull, ſiſter of the late ſir Wyndham Knatchbull, bart.

Counteſs of Holderneſs, aged 80.

John Brown, ſenior aſſociate engraver of the royal academy.

Archbiſhop of Dublin.

Dr. Richard Pulteney.

Rev. R. Rothwell, rector of Seſton, aged 80.

Mrs. Frances Barker, relict of the late John Barker, eſq. of Iſlington, aged 81.

Philip Stanhope, eſq.

PROMOTION.

DUKE of Leeds—governor of the iſlands of Scilly.

BANKRUPTS. From the GAZETTE.

SEPTEMBER 29.

J. WEBB, Spond ſtreet, in Coventry, dyer.

R. Robert, W. Tulford, and B. Hanbury, Great Ruſſel-ſtreet, Bloomſbury, ſhoemakers.

J. Davidſon the elder, W. Davidſon, J. Davidſon, the younger, and J. Davidſon, Halifax, Yorkſhire, dyers.

P. Auber, Eaſt-place, Lambeth, flour-factor.

E. Bate, Weſtbromwich, Staffordſhire, timber-merchant.

M. Herne, Wiewſley, Middleſex, coal-merchant.

W. Williams, and E. Evans, Portſea, Hants, linen drapers.

W. Pagett the younger, Womborn, in Staffordſhire, miller.

R. Aſhdowne, Lewes, mercer.

OCTOBER 3.

W. Weſt, and T. Hughes, Paternoſter-row, bookſellers.

J. Dennis, Wild-ſtreet, Lincoln-inn-fields, broker.

E. Pride, Duke-ſtreet, Artillery-ground, dyer.

P. Smith, Budge row, wholeſale-draper.

T. Mottram, Atherſtone, Warwickſhire, woolcomber.

R. Redhead, Mark-lane, wine-merchant.

J. Tanſley, Great Mary-le-bone-ſtreet, glaſs ſeller.

M. Greenaway, and F. Greenaway, Calne, Wiltſhire, collar-makers.

OCTOBER 6.

W. Middleton, Liverpool, merchant.

T. Hellyer, Funtington, Suſſex, timber-merchant.

G. M'Minn, and A. M'Minn, Liverpool, merchants.

G. Betley, Liverpool, vinegar-maker.

OCTOBER 10.

T. Dobſon, Kendal, Weſtmoreland, merchant.

J. Irwin, Aldgate High-ſtreet, innkeeper.

D. Hopwood, Union-ſtreet, Marybone, grocer.

M. Dimmock, Wincheſter, bookſeller.

A. Thacker, Upwell, Cambridge, corn-merchant.

D. Dakeyne the elder, D. Dakeyne the younger, T. Dakeyne, and J. Dakeyne, Darley Dale, bankers.

H. Davies, Welchpool, Montgomery, innkeeper.

J. Croſsley, Manchester, cotton-manufacturer.

J. Higginbotham, Blackburn, Lancaſhire, cotton-ſpinner.

R. Owen and W. Mardle, Houndſditch, copperſmiths.

G. Beal, Surry-ſtreet, cheeſemonger.

J. Laſt, Brighton, Suſſex, builder.

OCTOBER 13.

T. Eccles, and B. T. Holbrook, Watling-ſtreet, warehouſemen.

W. Lawſon, Park-place, Iſlington, money-ſcrivener.

W. Harrop, Salford, Lancaſhire, manufacturer.

D. Carter the younger, Great Bromley, Eſſex, ſhopkeeper.

J. Gulley, Frome Selwood, Somerſetſhire, innholder.

J. Budin, Hockley, in Warwickſhire, ſhopkeeper.

C. Bently, and J. Dale, Norwich, warehouſemen.

H. Vaughan, Liverpool, wholeſale grocer.

S. Bird, Manchester, linen-draper.

T. Dobſon, Kendal, merchant.

OCTOBER 17.

C. Hendy, Falmouth, mariner.

S. Adſhade, Bloſſom ſtreet, Spitalfields, cooper.

J. Whitehead, Marſden, in Yorkſhire, cornfactor.

J. Andrews, King-ſtreet, Bloomſbury, bridle-cutter.

F. Onion the younger, Croydon, Surry, miller.

OCTOBER 20.

J. Pollard, Eſſex-ſtreet, Strand, taylor.

R. Browne, Adam's-court, Broad-ſtreet, merchant.

G. Bowker, and J. Chapman, Manchester, corn-dealers.

J. Macklin, Cheapſide, ſtationer.

S. Haigh, Manchester, merchant.

G. Matſon, Farleton, in Lancaſhire, horſe-dealer.

S. Lewis, Southampton, victualler.

OCTOBER 24.

J. Miller, Hammerſmith, wheelwright.

W. Elſe, Fleet-ſtreet, warehouſeman.
T. Tinſon, Fenchurch ſtreet, wine-merchant.
J. Serle, Shepton-Mallett, Somerſetſhire, clothier.
T. Hodgſon, Liverpool, broker.
T. Virtue, Hammerſmith, carpenter.
J. Aitken, Caſtle-ſtreet, Leiceſter-fields, print-ſeller.
H. Mitchell, Goſport, rope-maker.
E. Rowlands, Coalbrooke Dale, Salop, barge-owner.

NEW PUBLICATIONS.

[In boards, or ſewed, at the Prices affixed.]

MANBY's Hiſtory of the Pariſh of St. David, Wales, 8vo, 10s 6d.

Deſpiau's Select Amuſements in Philoſophy and Mathematics, 12mo, 5s 6d.

Harwood's Grecian Antiquities, 8vo, 9s.

Llewellyn's Inſpiration of the Bible aſſerted, 8vo, 5s.

Complete Military Library, 2 vol. 4to, 4l 14s 6d.

Public Characters, vol. 4. 1801, 10s 6d.

Sonnini's Travels in Greece and Turkey, 4to, 2l 12s 6d.

Midnight Weddings, 3 vol. 12mo, 12s.

Bell's Principles of Surgery, vol. 1, royal 4to, 4l 4s.

Baldwin's Political Recollections relative to Egypt, 8vo, 6s.

Butcher's Subſtance of the Scriptures methodized, 4to, 1l 7s, bound.

Annual Regiſter, 1800, 10s 6d.

New Annual Regiſter, 1800, 14s.

Naſh's Juvenile Epigrams and Poems, 18mo, 3s.

Welſhman, a Romance, 4 vol, 12mo, 16s.

Spinſter's Tale, 3 vol. 12mo, 10s 6d.

Senilities, or Solitary Amuſements, ſmall 8vo, 6s.

Travell's Lectures on the Leſſons of the Old Teſtament for Sundays, 12mo, 4s 6d.

Letitia, or Caſtle without a Spectre, 4 vol. 12mo, 1l 1s.

Hamilton's Obſervations on the Marſh Remittent Fever, 8vo, 4s.

Lettſome's Obſervations on the Cowpox, 8vo, 3s.

Butler's Exerciſes on the Globes, 12mo, 5s.

Philoſophical Queſtions, for Schools, 12mo, 3s, bound.

Morier's Memoir of a Campaign in Egypt, 1800, 4s.

Noble's Dawn of Peace, an Ode, 4to, 2s 6d.

Morrice's Mentor, 8vo, 7s.

AVERAGE PRICES of CORN.

October 17, 1801.

By the Winchester Quarter of 8 Buſhels.

Inland Counties.

	Wheat.		Rye.		Barley.		Oats.	
	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.
Middleſex	71	9	39	4	44	2	31	8
Surry	74	4	42	0	40	9	31	8
Hertford	71	2	52	0	45	4	27	8
Bedford	74	1	42	2	51	8	28	0
Huntingdon	68	2	——		41	8	20	8
Northampton	73	10	48	0	44	2	24	10
Rutland	86	0	——		52	0	24	0
Leiceſter	83	4	54	7	46	3	25	5
Nottingham	85	2	55	0	55	4	29	2
Derby	91	8	——		59	6	33	5
Stafford	82	0	——		53	10	27	5
Salop	80	7	50	6	55	2	36	1
Hereford	81	0	62	4	48	8	26	7
Worceſter	85	5	48	8	46	7	42	0
Warwick	79	3	——		50	6	31	4
Wilts	64	0	——		41	8	32	2
Berks	68	4	——		34	9	30	10
Oxford	67	11	——		38	8	29	2
Bucks	68	9	——		40	3	31	0
Brecon	71	2	——		48	0	21	3
Montgomery	81	7	54	4	45	7	20	0
Radnor	85	10	——		48	9	29	5

Maritime Counties.

Eſſex	67	11	41	3	42	2	34	6
Kent	71	0	46	0	40	6	28	9
Suſſex	73	0	——		40	0	——	
Suffolk	73	4	40	0	45	7	28	1
Cambridge	78	2	46	0	37	0	20	2
Norfolk	68	6	40	0	40	7	25	1
Lincoln	80	2	——		52	2	23	7
York	74	11	49	11	50	3	23	2
Durham	66	6	——		——		21	2
Northumberland	63	10	39	0	31	10	22	2
Cumberland	73	8	51	7	46	6	28	9
Weſtmorland	78	2	56	0	45	8	23	0
Lancaſter	79	5	——		50	1	30	1
Cheſter	72	10	——		——		31	8
Flint	87	4	——		59	11	——	
Denbigh	86	7	——		62	6	23	0
Angleſea	None		bro't		forSale		——	
Carnarvon	83	4	——		52	4	27	6
Merioneth	85	1	58	0	54	0	18	0
Cardigan	74	3	52	0	40	6	17	2
Pembroke	77	2	——		40	10	19	4
Carmarthen	78	1	——		48	0	17	3
Glamorgan	84	4	——		52	5	20	2
Glouceſter	72	5	——		43	3	27	10
Somerſet	78	8	——		45	9	32	8
Monmouth	85	4	——		48	11	——	
Devon	84	5	——		44	10	29	5
Cornwall	88	3	——		40	4	21	6
Dorſet	81	3	42	0	48	3	32	8
Hants	73	11	——		41	7	25	10

Average of England and Wales.

Per Quarter	77	2	48	3	46	6	26	10

Oct. 22—Peck Loaf, 3s 10d.

METEOROLOGICAL JOURNAL, September 1801.

D.	H.	Baro.	T. out	T. in	H.	C.	Wind.	Weather, &c. Rain 1,37
1	7	29,94	54	63	66	0	W 1	
	2	30,00	66,5	65	59	1	W 1	
2	7	29,89	59	63,5	09	4	WSW 1	. little rain. more wind and fine
	2	29,82	65	65,5	61	1	W 3	. leſs wind
3	7	29,91	55	62	61	4	W 1	
	2	29,88	67	64,5	61	3	W 1	. gentle rain at eve and night
4	7	29,65	61,5	63,5	76	2	SSW 1	. more wind. chiefly cloudy and little rain
	2	29,59	64,5	65	73	5	S 2	. ſhowers, but chiefly fine
5	7	29,60	62	64,5	73	3	WSW 2	: cloudy
	2	29,73	69	67,5	67	5	W 1	. much rain: heavy ſhower. thunder
6	7	29,62	62	66	76	4	E 1	. little rain at times but chiefly fine
	2	29,57	70	68,5	72	3	E 1	. wind S: cloudy
7	7	29,72	62,5	67	72	5	NW 1	. little rain at times but chiefly fine
	2	29,89	65,5	67,5	71	3	N 2	. clear night
8	7	30,28	56,5	62,5	62	h	N 1	. fine
N	2	30,32	65,5	64,5	65	3	N 1	hazy. thick upward
9	7	30,38	60,5	64	70	h	WNW 0	. wind E and cloudy: fine
	2	30,37	68	65,5	64	2	ESE 1	. clear night
10	7	30,36	52,5	61	69	1	ENE 1	. more cloudy
	2	30,34	65	62,5	62	4	E 2	. more cloudy night
11	7	30,33	57,5	61,5	66	3	NNE 1	. more cloudy
	2	30,29	04,5	63,5	64	5	ENE 1	: little rain
12	7	30,19	58,5	63	75	5	NNE 1	hazy. drizzling at times
	2	30,15	62,5	64	75	5	E 1	. chiefly drizzling: chiefly fair
13	7	30,14	58	63,5	77	5	NE 1	: gentle rain
	2	30,14	63,5	65	74	4	NE 1	
14	7	30,21	59,5	63,5	75	h	NE 0	. very thick upward. wind W and brighter:
	2	30,25	65,5	66	71	5	WNW 1	little wet. leſs cloudy. thick upward [little wet
15	7	30,44	60,5	66	78	h	N 1	. fine
	2	30,49	68,6	67	67	3	E 1	. clear eve
16	7	30,53	56	62,5	74	f	E 0	. not cloudy. fine
	2	30,43	67	65	66	1	E 1	
17	7	30,20	60,5	64,5	69	h	ENE 1	
	2	30,07	68	66,5	73	h	E 1	: little rain
18	7	29,77	63	66,5	80	4	E 1	hazy. fine
	2	29,76	71,5	68,5	68	2	S 2	. little wet. rainy eve. fair: fine
19	7	29,91	56	65	69	1	W 1	
	2	30,02	67	66,5	63	2	W 1	. clear eve
20	7	30,08	57	62	73	3	SSW 1	. ſhower
	2	30,06	64	65	67	4	WSW 1	. little wet. fine night
21	7	29,98	53,5	62	68	3	NNW 1	
	2	29,98	63	63	65	3	N 1	: cloudy. little rain
22	7	30,03	55	61	72	5	N 1	chiefly gentle rain
F	2	30,03	57	61,5	72	5	NNW 1	chiefly gentle rain. fine night: drizzly
23	7	29,93	55	61	75	h	WSW 1	drizzly. wind SE. not cloudy
	2	30,07	02,5	62	74	3	E 1	hazy. cloudy. much rain: fine
24	7	30,17	50,5	59	72	2	NNE 1	
	2	30,19	60	61	09	3	N 2	: clear
25	7	30,22	47,5	56,5	72	f	WSW 1	not cloudy. fine
	2	30,17	58	59,5	64	3	ENE 1	
26	7	30,07	51,5	57,5	75	3	E 1	. cloudy. little rain
	2	30,01	60	60	75	5	E 1	. much rain at night. fine
27	7	30,09	60	62	80	4	SW 1	hazy. fine: cloudy
	2	30,15	67	64	72	5	WSW 1	. fine. hazy night
28	7	30,22	59,5	63	79	2	SE 1	. cloudy. drizzling: fine
	2	30,21	65	66,5	74	3	S 1	
29	7	30,15	59,5	63	73	2	S 1	
	2	30,05	69	66,5	60	4	S 2	. clear night
30	7	30,03	56,5	63	72	3	WSW 1	: ſhower
	2	30,10	64	65,5	7·	4	WNW 1	rain at times. fine eve. clear

PRICES of STOCKS, from SEPTEMBER 29 to OCTOBER 28 1801, both inclusive.

By ANTHONY CLARKE, Stockbroker, No. 29, Princes-Street, Lothbury.

Days	Bank Stock. shut.	3 per C. reduced. shut.	3 per C. consols.	4 per C. Anns. shut.	Old 5 per C. Conf.	New 5 per C. Anns. shut.	Long Anns. shut.	Short Anns. shut.	India Stock.	Imperial 3 per C.	Imperial Ann.	Exchequer Bills.	English Lot. Tic.	Irish Lot. Tic.
29			59 5/8 a 3/8									1s. dif.		
30														
1			59 3/4 a 1/2		94 1/4					59 1/4	11 3/8	1		
2			64 a 66 1/8		100					65		5		
3	183		66 1/2 a 6 3/4		102 1/2					67 1/2	13	10		
5	182		69 a 67 1/8		103 1/4	104 1/4			212	67 1/2	12 7/8	8		
6	182		67 1/2 a 67		102					67 1/2	12 7/8	10		
7	183 1/2		67 1/2 a 7/8		102 3/4				210 1/2	67 1/2		8		
8	183 1/2		67 1/2 a 7/8		102 3/4				211	67 3/4	12 3/4	8		
9	184 3/4		67 5/8 a 8 5/8		103	104 3/4			212 1/2	67 1/2		8		
10			68 5/8 a 67 1/2		102 1/4							3		
12	184		67 3/4 a 67 1/2		102 1/2				210			3		
13	183		67 a 67 1/2		101 1/2				209 1/2			3	16 0 0	
14	184		67 3/8 a 68 1/4		102 1/8				210 1/2			3		
15	184 1/2		68 a 67 1/2		102 1/8				210 1/2			3		
16			68 1/8 a 68 3/8		102				211 1/2			1		
17			68 3/8 a 69		102 1/4				213			2		
19	187 1/2		69 1/8 7/8		102 3/4				214			2		
20	187		69 1/4 a 68 3/4		102 1/2				215			1		
21	186 1/2	67 1/2	68 3/8 a 69 1/2		101 1/2			5 1/2	213			par		1
22			69 1/8 1/2		102			5 1/2	214 1/2			2 pr.		
23	185 1/4	68 3/8	69 1/4 a 1/2		101 1/2			5 1/2	215 1/2			2 pr.	16 2 0	
24		68 1/2	69 1/4 a 3/8	86 3/8	101 1/4			5 1/4	215 1/4			2 pr.		
26														
27	187 1/2	68 1/2	69 1/2	86 1/4	101 3/8			5 1/4						
28														

☞ In the 3 per Cent. consols. the higheſt and loweſt Price of each Day is given; in every other Article the higheſt Price only, the Long, Short, and Imperial Annuities excepted, which are given within a ſixteenth of the higheſt Price. In the different Funds that are ſhut, the Prices are given with the Dividend till the Days of Opening.

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